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POLITICS AND EXPERTISE IN POLICYMAKING:
A MODEL AND CASE STUDY

by

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A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was three-fold: (1) to develop a general descriptive model of policymaking (the rational-political model); (2) to apply this model to the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan in Archbishop Jordan High School in Sherwood Park, Alberta; and (3) to assess the usefulness of the model to study the policymaking process. The rational-political model viewed the policymaking process as five distinct but interrelated stages and included three major components labeled rational characteristics, political characteristics, and rational-political characteristics. The rational characteristics were drawn from relevant policy analysis models; the political characteristics were derived from relevant policy science models; while the rational-political characteristics were developed from the literature on orientations to the roles of the expert and the politician in the policymaking process. These three components were designed respectively to facilitate the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies experts employ to generate rational inputs, the interactions between and among politicians, and the interactions between experts and politicians in the policymaking process.

The application of the rational-political model to the policymaking process took the form of a case study. The members of an outside evaluation team were identified as the experts; while the members of the School Board of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate

School District, the Superintendent's office, the school, and adult interest groups were identified as the politicians in the policymaking process. Data were collected from three sources: the researcher's notes of observations and impressions while involved in the first three stages of the policymaking process; the various documents from the School Board, the Superintendent's office, the school, and the evaluation team; and interviews of thirteen knowledgeable individuals. A triangulation method was used to interpret the data and to describe and analyse the roles of experts and politicians for various aspects of the policymaking process. The usefulness of the rational-political model was assessed against six criteria from the relevant literature.

The major finding of this study was that the rational-political model proved to be useful in describing and analysing the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling plan at Archbishop Jordan High School. In comparison with the other policymaking models reviewed the rational-political model appeared better equipped to facilitate a comprehensive description and analysis of a policymaking process actively involving experts and politicians.

A number of implications for theory and practice and several recommendations for further research were derived from this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Lasswell (1970:3) views policy sciences as involving "two separable though entwined frames of reference: knowledge of the process; knowledge in the process." These two frames of reference are the underlying orientations of the two general approaches used in studying policymaking -- policy science and policy analysis. Policy science is descriptive and analyses the dynamics of the process involved in policymaking. It is concerned mainly with the politics of policymaking. Policy science is non-evaluative, describes the process as it is, and uses models that attempt to explain the behavior of the actors under "general laws." Policy analysis, on the other hand, is prescriptive and attempts to maximize the appropriateness and efficiency of policy through knowledge inputs and rationality in the policymaking process. Policy analysis is concerned with the role the expert could play in improving the policymaking process. It points out how policymaking ought to be and uses models based on rationality to evaluate the policymaking process.

There has always been tension between experts and politicians in the policymaking process. This stems from a general disagreement on the importance of knowledge and rationality versus situational and political factors in the policymaking process. Simmons and Davis (1957:299) capture this tension when they state that typically experts complain that policymakers "can't see the forest for the trees" while policymakers, in turn, wonder whether experts "can see human beings behind the statistics."

Policy analysts have been trying without significant success to narrow the gap between what policymaking "is" and what it "ought to be." Kaagan and Weinman (1976:64-69) list a number of reasons for this failure including the different characteristics of experts and policymakers, the type of information provided, and situational and political factors. However, the main problem for policy analysts apparently lies in getting their rational inputs into the policymaking process.

Most of the models developed to study policymaking have been classified as either policy science (political) models or policy analysis (rational) models. The policy science models are primarily concerned with the interactions of actors in what is viewed as essentially a political process. Experts are seen as playing a secondary role to the politicians. The policy analysis models are concerned mainly with ways to generate knowledge inputs and to inject rationality into the policymaking process. Experts see themselves as playing a major role giving guidance to the politicians. These models, preoccupied as they are with either the political or rational aspects of the process, seem to have given inadequate attention to a very important area that marks the interface between policy science and policy analysis or between politicians and experts. This seems to be a fruitful area to explore for reasons why policy research does not make a greater impact on policymaking. As Lerner (1976:17) points out:

> Few systematic discussions are available on how the expert acts in his political relationships to make the impact attributed to him. Few would dispute that the role of experts in politics is an important question, but the fact remains that the question has not yet been subjected to a sustained frontal attack by our discipline.

A corresponding description and analysis of how the politician acts towards the expert would further illuminate this area of relationships in the policymaking process.

Writers on policymaking have been advocating the development of comprehensive models to gain the perspectives of both policy analysis and policy science and to combine more meaningfully rational inputs and political factors. For example, Downey (1977:22) argues for a rational-political model combining "the knowledge being generated in the policy sciences with the technologies being developed in policy analysis for the purpose of strengthening the process." Downey (p.26) suggests that this comprehensive model could be developed by superimposing the political view upon the rational view so that "the reality of both the intellectual and the political aspects of the process be honored and accepted." Before such a normative rational-political model could be developed it seems necessary to first map out a general descriptive rational-political model. Such a descriptive model applied to a number of cases in policymaking could lay the groundwork for the development of "general Laws" to explain the process. It is possible that these general laws of explanation could eventually form the basis of a normative rational-political model.

Several of the policy analysis and policy science models view policymaking as a process that ends when a policy is chosen. However, this view excludes two important stages in the process, namely, policy implementation and policy review. How a policy is implemented has important implications for earlier stages in the policymaking process. Further, since policies deal with future actions there may be need for review and modification. These two stages may also entail different interactions between key actors and may need different types of rational inputs than the earlier stages of the process. Therefore it seems essential for comprehensive models of policymaking to include policy implementation and policy review in their framework.

The above outline of the development and trends in policymaking seems to suggest that comprehensive models are probably the most appropriate conceptual frameworks to study policymaking. One such model could be labeled "a general descriptive rational-political model" and designed to describe and analyse the ways policy analysts generate knowledge, the interactions of key political actors, the gray "rational-political" area where politicians and experts interact, and stages of a policymaking process that include policy implementation and policy review.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was three-fold:

1. To develop a general descriptive rational-political model capable of describing and analysing the roles of experts and politicians in a policymaking process.
2. To apply the general descriptive rational-political model to study a policymaking process, namely, the modification of the

Jordan Plan in Sherwood Park.

3. To test the usefulness of the general descriptive rational-political model in describing and analysing a policymaking process.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is significant for three reasons:

First, this study has theoretical implications for studying policymaking. Recent writers on policymaking, for example, Downey (1977) and Ingram (1978) have been advocating a rational-political model of policymaking that considers the politics of the issue at hand but also includes a rational component. The major focus of this study is to develop and test the usefulness of a general descriptive rational-political model of policymaking. As a result, this study may assist in clarifying the issues surrounding the search for a synthesis of the rational and political approaches to study policymaking.

Second, there seems to be a need for a better understanding of the role of research in the policymaking process. In 1977, there was a joint conference of the Canadian Education Association (CEA) and the Canadian Educational Researchers' Association (CERA) with the theme "Educational Research and Policy Formation." In his introductory remarks Carmen Moir (1977:27) CEA President, said:

> The topic chosen for the Conference is significant in terms of education today: we need to have a greater understanding of policy formation, and the role that research plays in the process.

This case study describes and analyses the modification of a school policy in which both political and rational aspects were in evidence.

The Board of Trustees of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District actively involved a group of contract researchers in the process and this study may supply insights on how research could be used.

Third, this study has implications for educational practitioners contemplating innovative projects in schools. The case study describes the process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan which was a controversial scheduling program in Archbishop Jordan Junior/Senior High School in Sherwood Park. It documents the problems the Board of Trustees and the school had to endure and the strategies employed to solve these problems.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

For the purposes of this study the following definitions are given for policy, policymaking, expert, and politician.

Policy. A policy is a major guideline for future discretionary action to achieve a condition or goal. It is stated in general terms, is based on philosophical grounds, and implies intentions and patterns for future action.

Policymaking. Policymaking is the determination of a course of action that is pursued as advantageous or expedient, or the result of the processes in which all parties in and related to a social system shape the goals of the system and the broad guidelines for their achievement.

The Expert. Lerner (1976:18-19) gives a contextual definition of the expert. In a decisionmaking group he is the individual who perceives himself and is perceived by others as the expert on the substantive issue at hand with both the expert and non-experts being aware of each other's perceptions. The expert derives his status from fairly uniform criteria: he may possess superior skills, knowledge, or experience; he may be preceded by a reputation as an expert; he may carry credentials granting him the title; he may personally be known by other members in the decisionmaking group who affirm his status; or he may gain that status on the basis of skills or performance exhibited after joining the group.

The Politician. Lerner (1976:20-21) sees the politician as someone elected or appointed and holding a visible office, or commanding a unit in some bureaucracy. In this institutional position of authority the politician consciously manipulates human relationships in order to achieve goals. This contextual definition requires that the politician perceives himself and is perceived by others in the decisionmaking group as a politician with both the politician and nonpoliticians being aware of each other's perceptions.

DELIMITATIONS

This study was delimited to the period September 1, 1977 to June 30, 1979 -- from the period when circumstances caused the Board of Trustees of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District to begin reviewing the scheduling plan at Archbishop Jordan Junior/Senior High School to the time when the decision was taken to abandon the Jordan Plan and revert to the previous five-day week scheduling arrangement.

LIMITATIONS

Limitations on this study were as follows:

1. This study was limited by the researcher's interpretation of the data and the resulting description and analysis of the politics and expertise involved in the modification of the scheduling plan at Archbishop Jordan Junior/Senior High School.

2. Another limitation of this study was the degree to which its findings can be generalized to other settings. For example, this study was based on a policymaking process in a setting that may be different in many respects from others.

ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions were made in this study:

1. It was assumed that semi-structured interviews used in this study provided valid and reliable perceptions of the respondents toward various aspects of the policymaking process involved in rescheduling the school week at Archbishop Jordan Junior/Senior High School.

2. It was also assumed that the documents, records, briefs, news items, and minutes pertaining to the Jordan Plan that were reviewed in this study were accurate.

ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

This chapter discussed the introduction to the study, the purpose of the study, significance of the study, definition of terms, delimitations, limitations, and assumptions.

The remainder of the thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter II -- Background Literature Review

Chapter III -- Design of the Study

Chapter IV -- Development of the General Descriptive Rational-Political Model and its Application.

Chapter V -- Application of the General Descriptive Rational-Political Model to Study a Policymaking Process.

Chapter VI -- Assessment of the Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model.

Chapter VII -- Summary, Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND LITERATURE REVIEW

OVERVIEW

This chapter reviews the background literature used to develop a general descriptive rational-political model capable of describing and analysing the techniques experts employ to generate rational inputs, the interactions of politicians, and the interactions of experts and politicians in a five stage policymaking process. The review underlines the political nature of policymaking and traces the emergence of the policy sciences and the efforts of policy scientists to influence public policy. It also identifies policy science and policy analysis as two general approaches used to study the policymaking process and discusses the models associated with them. Other important areas of the review include: the impact of policy research on policymaking; the ways policymakers use policy research; ways to increase the effectiveness of policy research in policymaking; orientations to the role of the policy expert in the policymaking process; stages in the policymaking process; and criteria for testing the usefulness of a model.

POLICYMAKING AND POLITICS

Policymaking is essentially a political process. Dye (1975:1) observes that "public policy is whatever governments choose to do or not do." Easton (1965:80) notes that whenever a policy is made, the allocation of resources is involved; and whenever the allocation of resources is involved, we are operating in a political framework. Wergin (1976:78) argues that policymaking is a political act since it centers on the selection of one set of interests and values over other sets of interests and values At the same time, noting the nature of politics, it is difficult to separate political actions from policymaking. This is well illustrated in Frohock's (1979:8) description:

> "Politics" includes regulation, bargaining, assigning roles and offices, extracting resources, maximizing, allocating, changing the rules and conditions of the game, and other actions that ... overlap each other.

MANAGEMENT SCIENCE

Management science first emerged as operational research in the Second World War. Its results on wartime problems far exceeded expectations and led to strong interest on both sides of the Atlantic in its approaches and techniques. According to Radnor et al. (1975:4-5) this interdisciplinary approach involved several basic characteristics: a multidisciplinary team of nonscientists and scientists; the use of the scientific method; an emphasis on "systems"; a reliance on mathematical models; and an advisory function to top decision-makers.

After the Second World War operational research techniques were applied to business and government. Several disciplines have since grown around operational research and have been placed under the common umbrella "management science". Management science now includes such fields as operations research, systems analysis, information systems, decision theory, management cybernetics, managerial economics, planning-programming-budgeting systems (PPBS), cost-benefit analysis, simulation, and network analysis. Thus, management science is conceived as the application of mathematical and related techniques using a "systems" perspective to the solution of social and management problems.

While management science continues to make significant contributions to the improvement of policymaking it has limitations deriving mainly from its mathematical focus. Radnor et al. (1975) note that while management science is important it is only a partial answer for policymakers; management science cannot "incorporate political, institutional, 'irrational' (but real), and other similar non-quantifiable and value-laden factors into mathematical decision analysis."

POLICY SCIENCES

Policy sciences were developed by incorporating management science with the behavioral sciences to satisfy all the requirements of policymaking. Lasswell (1951) who identified the area and coined the term "policy sciences" pleaded for an integration of the various disciplines into a unified approach to solve the practical policy problems of government. Quade (1970:1) in the editorial to the inaugural publication of the journal "Policy Sciences" states that the intention of the policy sciences was "simply to augment, by scientific decision methods and the behavioral sciences, the process that humans use in making judgements and taking decisions." Dror (1970:149) views policy sciences as an attempt to reassert and achieve a central role for rationality and intellectualism in human affairs "to stem the dangerous trend in human affairs where the difficulties and problems increase at a geometric rate while knowledge and qualified manpower tend to increase only at an arithmetic rate."

Dror (1968:7-8) suggests that the establishment of policy sciences as a new supra-discipline involves a scientific revolution requiring the development of basic paradigms. Dror (1970:138-139) advances the following eight "paradigms" as basic to the development of the policy sciences:

1. A breakdown of the traditional boundaries between the disciplines of the behavioral and management studies.
2. Bridging the usual dichotomy between "pure" and "applied" research by acceptance of the improvement of public policymaking as the ultimate goal.
3. Acceptance of tacit knowledge and personal experiences as important sources of knowledge together with conventional methods of research.
4. A focus on means and intermediate goals rather than absolute values.
5. An emphasis on historic developments and future developments as the central contexts for improved policymaking.
6. A focus on "metapolicies" -- on improved methods, knowledge, and systems for better policymaking.
7. A commitment to strive for increased utilization of policy sciences in actual policymaking and to the preparation of professionals for this purpose.
8. A recognition of the important roles of extrarational and

irrational processes in policymaking.

POLICY SCIENCE AND POLICY ANALYSIS

Lasswell (1970:3) notes that the policy sciences were "concerned with two separable though entwined frames of reference: knowledge of the policy process; knowledge in the policy process." In other words, the role of policy sciences is two-fold -- to describe and analyse the policymaking process for better understanding; and to improve policymaking itself through knowledge inputs. These two facets of the role of policy sciences have been described generally in the policymaking literature as policy science and policy analysis.

The study of policymaking from a policy science standpoint regards a policy as an intervention into the social and political structure of society. The purpose of the investigation is to describe and analyse the dynamics of the intervention and try to understand the behavior of individuals or groups in the policymaking process. The methodologies used in policy science are those of the social and behavioral sciences.

A policy analysis study views a policy as a means of improving or adapting public services. The main objective of the analyst is to maximize the appropriateness and efficiency of the policy through knowledge inputs and rationality into the policymaking process. Policy analysts employ the techniques of cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analyses, futures forecasting, simulation and other related strategies taken from management science.

MODELS IN POLICY SCIENCE AND POLICY ANALYSIS

There are several models in the policymaking literature to guide the work of the policy scientist and the policy analyst. According to Dye (1975:17) these models help to understand political life by: simplifying and clarifying our thinking about government and politics; by identifying important political forces in society; and by communicating relevant knowledge about political events and outcomes. These models could be classified as policy science models and policy analysis models.

The models in policy science and policy analysis are reviewed with the aim of developing a general descriptive rational-political model to apply to a policymaking process including the five stages of identification of needs, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review (discussed later in detail). Thus, an attempt is made to identify the "general laws" underlying the explanations in the policy science models and the basis for rationality in the policy analysis models. Further, these models are linked with the stages in the policymaking process that they seem most suitable to describe and analyse.

Policy Science Models

Policy science models are descriptive. They assist in analysing the dynamics of the policy intervention using methodologies from the social and behavioral sciences. Frohock (1979:24-25) sees these models as: providing a "sociological" explanation of events that lead to a particular behavior sometimes subsumed under general laws; conforming to standards required for good explanations; and requiring no "measuring up" on the part of the participant whose behavior is being explained. In short, policy science models take a non-evaluative approach while describing the policymaking process as it unfolds and tries to explain what caused the participants to behave in the way they did.

The following policy science models are now discussed highlighting the general laws they contain to provide explanations and the policymaking stages that they consider: (1) the institutional model, (2) the group model, (3) the elite-mass model, and (4) the systems model.

(1) The Institutional Model. In explaining the policymaking process according to this model the policy scientist notes that governmental institutions play the central role by authoritatively determining, implementing, and enforcing public policy. This occurs because of the following features of government: (1) government lends legitimacy to policies and they become legal obligations which command the loyalty of citizens; (2) government policies are universal in their application extending to all people in society; and (3) government monopolizes legitimate coercion in society. Dye (1975:18) claims that because of these distinctive features of government individuals and groups in society tend to work for enactment of their preferences into public policy.

Dye (1975:19) illustrates the way governmental institutions shape public policy in this manner:

> Governmental institutions are really structured patterns of behavior of individuals and groups. By "structured" we mean these

> patterns of behavior tend to persist over time. These stable patterns of individual and group behavior may affect the content of public policy. Institutions may be so structured as to facilitate certain policy outcomes and to obstruct other policy outcomes .... In short, the structure of governmental institutions may have important policy consequences.

Figure 1 shows two examples of the institutional model in city government.

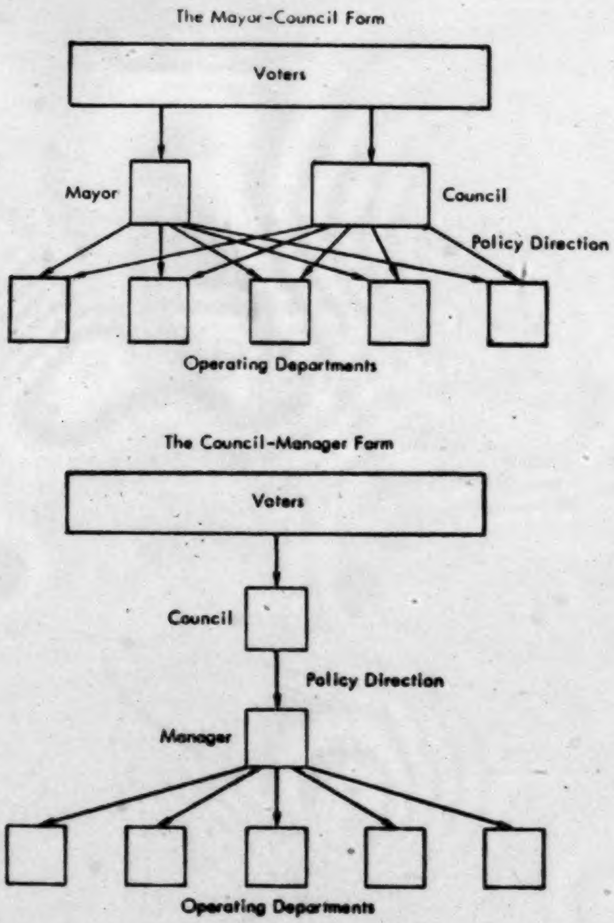

The Mayor-Council Form
Voters
Mayor
Council
Policy Direction
Operating Departments
The Council-Manager Form
Voters
Council
Policy Direction
Manager
Operating Departments

Figure 1: An Institutional Model: Forms of City Government (Dye, 1975:20).

It appears that the institutional model could be applied to all five stages of the policymaking process. However, since many government institutions are charged with the implementation of policies they did not make, implementation could be the primary focus of this model. This key responsibility for implementation made Dye (1975:19) comment that institutional structures can facilitate or hinder policy outcomes. One could add at this stage that government departments, structure apart, could facilitate or obstruct policies passed down by the politicians depending on the commitment they show towards the policies in question.

(2) The Group Model. Truman (1951) suggests that the group model rests on the notion that interaction among groups is the central fact of political life. The model explains the policymaking process as a struggle between interest groups to get their preferences enacted as policy. Individuals with common interests group themselves together either formally or informally to make demands on government. Truman (1951:37) defines an interest group as "a shared-attitude group that makes certain claims upon other groups in the society" which becomes political "if and when it makes a claim through or upon any of the institutions of government." Dye (1975:21) suggests that the task of the political system in this model is:

> ... to manage group conflict by (1) establishing rules of the game in the group struggle, (2) arranging compromises and balancing interests, (3) enacting compromises in the form of public policy, and (4) enforcing these compromises.

Accordingly, public policy in the group model is the result of the equilibrium reached in the group struggle at any given point in time. This is determined by the relative strengths and influence of the interest groups involved. Latham (1956:239) notes that changes are determined by the varying strengths of groups and movements are directed toward preferences of those groups gaining in influence at the expense of those groups which are losing influence at any given time.

The interest group model seems to focus attention mainly on the identification of issues, policy development and policy choice stages of the policymaking process. During the first two stages competing interest groups press demands on the political system to have their preferences enacted as policy. The political system responds by managing the conflict, determining the strengths of the groups, identifying the issues and arranging compromises in the form of new policies. Although it is the pressure from the interest groups that shapes the policy it is the political system that makes the final choice of policy and arranges for implementation and review.

(3) The Elite-Mass Model. This model explains the policymaking process in terms of six "general laws." Dye (1975:24-25) lists these as:

1. Society is divided into the few who have power and the many who do not. Only a small number of persons allocate values for society; the masses do not decide public policy.
2. The few who govern are not typical of the masses who are governed. Elites are drawn disproportionately from the upper socioeconomic strata of society.
3. The movement of nonelites to elite positions must be slow and continuous to maintain stability and avoid revolution. Only nonelites who have accepted the basic elite consensus can be admitted to governing circles.
4. Elites share consensus on behalf of the basic values of the social system, and the preservation of the system. In America, the bases of elite consensus are the sanctity of

private property, limited government, and individual liberty.

5. Public policy does not reflect demands of masses but rather the prevailing values of the elite. Changes in public policy will be incremental rather than revolutionary.

6. Active elites are subject to relatively little direct influence from apathetic masses. Elites influence masses more than masses influence elites.

The elite-mass model appears to describe the identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, and policy review stages of the policymaking process. The elite develops policies from its consensus on the basic values and preferences of the society for the masses and enact policies accordingly. These policies are passed on to be implemented by administrators. Should there be a need for a change or review in policy it is the elite that makes the decision.

Figure II illustrates the elite-mass model.

(4) The Systems Model. Dye (1975:36-37) views public policy according to this model as a response of the political system to forces brought to bear upon it from the environment. The environment is any condition or circumstance outside the boundaries of the political system. Inputs are the forces generated by environment that elicit responses from the political system. The political system is "that group of interrelated structures and processes which functions authoritatively to allocate values in society." Outputs of the political system constitute public policy.

Dye (1975:37-38) observes that the usefulness of the systems model lies in the questions that it poses:

1. What are the significant dimensions of the environment that generate demands upon the political system?

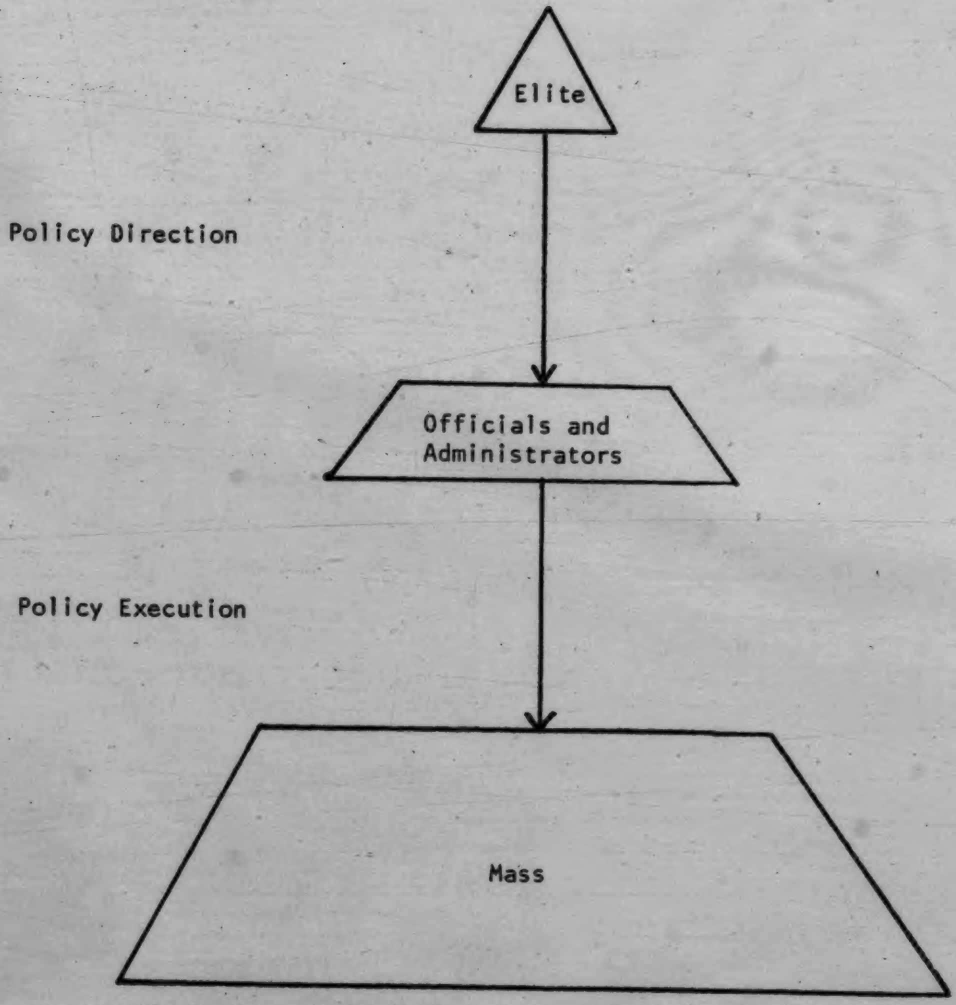

Elite
Policy Direction
Officials and Administrators
Policy Execution
Mass

Figure II: The Elite-Mass Model (Dye, 1975:25)

2. What are the significant characteristics of the political system that enable it to transform demands into public policy and to preserve itself over time?

3. How do environmental inputs affect the character of the political system?

4. How do characteristics of the political system affect the content of public policy?

5. How do environmental inputs affect the content of public policy?

6. How does public policy affect, through feedback, the environment and the character of the political system?

Figure III shows the Systems Model.

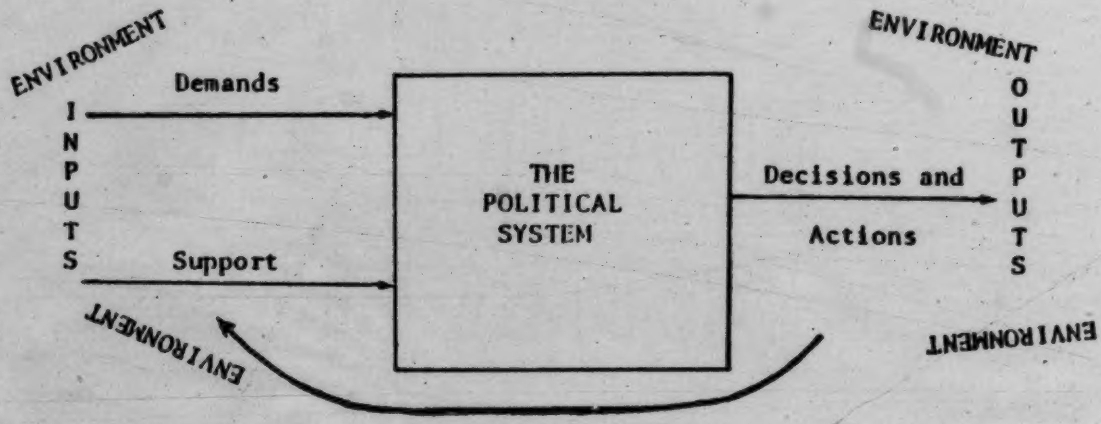

ENVIRONMENT
INPUTS
Demands
Support
THE POLITICAL SYSTEM
Decisions and Actions
ENVIRONMENT
OUTPUTS
ENVIRONMENT
ENVIRONMENT

Figure III: The Systems Model (Dye, 1975:37)

The systems model seems to cover all the five stages of the policymaking process in a general way. The political system identifies policy issues by processing the demands and supports from the environment which it receives as inputs. The issues identified then become the raw materials for policy development and policy choice. The policy chosen becomes the output of the political system and is implemented. The policy may have a modifying effect upon the environment and the inputs arising from it and may even affect the character of the political system itself. This in turn may require a review of policy. However, the important point to note about the systems model is that while it gives a general overall view of the policymaking process it can, as Frohock (1979:18) suggests, "easily pass over the light and heat of real events." For example, it cannot offer explanations about the processes in the political system that transform inputs into policies. These are enclosed in a "black box" and other models have to be used for their description and analysis.

Policy Analysis Models

Policy analysis models are prescriptive or normative. They are closely aligned to the idea of rationality and prescribe the means to maximize the appropriateness and efficiency of policies through knowledge inputs and rational procedures. The techniques employed in these models are taken mainly from management science and general research. A central role is espoused for experts in the policymaking process. These models reveal a concern for improving the policymaking process by providing rational criteria for evaluation.

The following policy analysis models are now discussed highlighting their criteria for rationality, processes involved, and the policymaking stages considered: (1) the pure rationality model, (2) the satisficing model, (3) the incremental model, (4) the mixed scanning model, and (5) the optimal model.

(1) The Pure Rationality Model. Dye (1975:27) notes the following necessary criteria for selecting a policy according to this model:

> ... policymakers must (1) know all the society's value preferences and their relative weight; (2) know all the policy alternatives available; (3) know all the consequences of each policy alternative; (4) calculate the ratio of achieved to sacrificed societal values for each policy alternative; (5) select the most efficient policy alternative.

Since these criteria are perfect in the model they are also regarded as the standards to judge a policymaking process. It is apparent that only expert policy analysts can attempt to make policy using the pure rationality model. Dye (1975:30) points out that although it is impossible to arrive at a purely rational policy this model is useful in posing the question: "Why is policymaking not a more rational process?" Figure IV illustrates the operation of the pure rationality model.

The pure rationality model appears to cover all stages in the policymaking process except implementation. This model requires the presence of the resources and data to identify policy needs, develop policy alternatives, and choose the most appropriate and efficient policy in a purely rational process. Apparently these resources and data also enable policy review to occur. Policy implementation is charged to administrators.

(2) The Satisficing Model. This model was developed to facilitate rational policy choices free from the constraints of predetermined "designated ends". An "aspirational level" or satisfactory

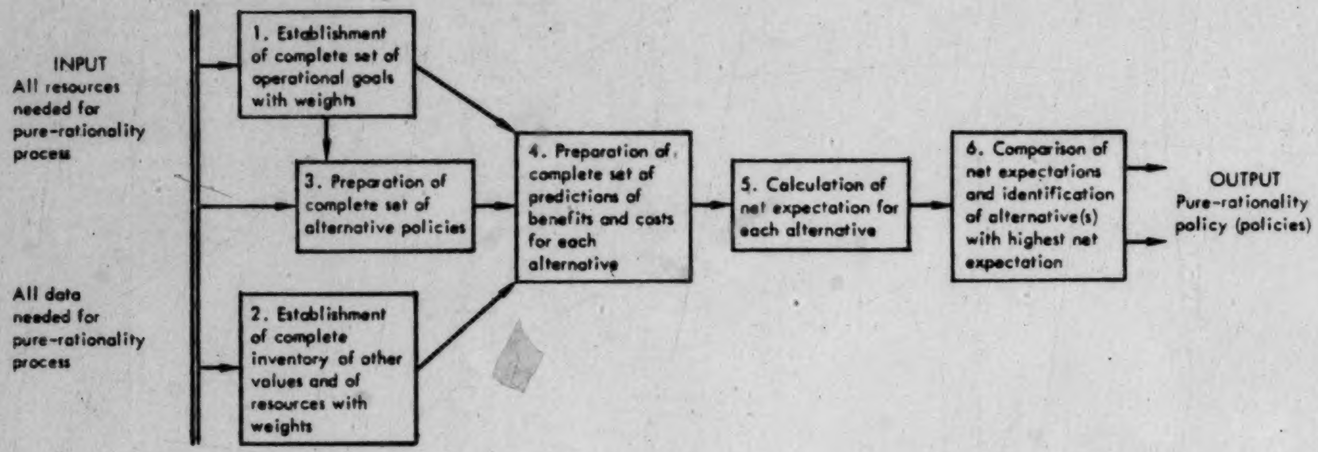

INPUT
All resources needed for pure-rationality process
All data needed for pure-rationality process
1. Establishment of complete set of operational goals with weights
2. Establishment of complete inventory of other values and of resources with weights
3. Preparation of complete set of alternative policies
4. Preparation of complete set of predictions of benefits and costs for each alternative
5. Calculation of net expectation for each alternative
6. Comparison of net expectations and identification of alternative(s) with highest net expectation
OUTPUT
Pure-rationality policy (policies)

Figure IV: The Operation of the Pure Rationality Model (Dye, 1975:28).

level was substituted for designated ends to measure policy alternatives. This aspirational level is discretionary and can be raised or lowered by the policymakers depending on the difficulty in finding a satisficing alternative. From the tone of this model it appears as though the policymakers are either policy experts or politicians genuinely guided by policy experts.

Dror (1968:147) notes the following steps in the search for alternatives as central to the satisficing model: identify the obvious alternatives based on recent policymaking experience; evaluate the expected payoffs of these alternatives in terms of their satisfactory quality; choose the first alternative that appears to have the expected payoff that is satisfactory and discontinue the search for alternatives that may yield higher payoffs; in the event of all the obvious alternatives falling below the satisfactory quality, then extend search to include more innovative alternatives; if the continued search fails to discover any alternative that measures up to the satisfactory level then the standard for satisfaction is lowered.

In assessing the satisficing model, Dror (1968:148) observes:

> The main strength ... lies in its realistic tone and its claim to be based on sound social psychological and organizational theory .... The main weakness ... is that it takes the satisfactory quality as given, and so ignores the main question it should be answering, namely, what the variables shaping the satisfactory quality are, and how they can be consciously directed.

The satisficing model seems concerned mainly with the policy development and policy choice stages of the policymaking process.

(3) The Incremental Model. The incremental model shifts the emphasis from the criterion of preestablished goals to process criteria

of rationality. Dye (1975:31-33) notes that policymakers use the incremental approach because of the following reasons: they do not have "the time, intelligence, or money" to explore all alternatives of existing policy; the legitimacy of existing policies is accepted because it is difficult to predict the consequences of completely new policies; there are usually heavy investments (sunk costs) in existing programs; incremental changes are politically expedient; incrementalism fits the characteristics of policymakers -- being pragmatic, men settle for "a way that will work" rather than search for "one best way;" and in the absence of agreed-upon societal goals it is easier to continue existing policies. This model seems to require significant inputs from policy experts into the policymaking process.

The incremental model seems to be concerned mainly with the policy development and policy choice stages in the policymaking process.

(4) The Mixed Scanning Model. This model was designed to avoid the problem of "designated ends" in the other "rationalistic models." Etzioni (1967:385) presents this model as combining a phase encompassing "strategic" choices with another phase of incrementing implementation. To scan for strategic choices this model relies on "the basic values of the decisionmaker" to provide guidance. This means that the rationality of the strategic choice depends in the final analysis on the rationality of the basic values of the decisionmaker. To solve this problem the model assumes "some normative integrity" on the part of the decisionmakers who clearly

include expert policy analysts.

This model seems to apply to the three stages of policy development, policy choice and policy implementation.

(5) The Optimal Model. This is the most comprehensive of the policy analysis models. It includes the three major stages of meta-policymaking, policymaking, and post-policymaking which are closely interconnected by communication and feedback mechanisms. These three stages in the model are divided into eighteen phases. The meta-policymaking stage involves policymaking on policymaking. The policymaking stage is where actual policies are made. The post-policymaking stage considers the execution and review of policy.

Dror (1968:130) states that the optimal model was developed to satisfy three main conditions: to match reality well enough to enable action-oriented analysis and evaluation of policymaking; to be systematic and comprehensive enough to be used for significant and penetrating analysis; and to be normative, "not in the sense of establishing processes and structures whereby a maximum net output of whatever goals and values are desired can be achieved."

An optimal policy results from a policymaking process in this model where rationality is present in a strictly procedural sense. Rational components in the model are supported by such extra-rational processes as "creativity," "intuition" and "judgement" in the inventive phases of policy development. The "instrumental" character of the optimal model is highlighted when Dror (1968:242) states "this means that policy science could serve any goal, from increases in human happiness and self-fulfilment to genocide."

The optimal model could be applied to all the five phases of the policymaking process: identification of needs, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review.

ROLE OF POLICY RESEARCH IN POLICYMAKING

The role of policy research in policymaking is discussed by addressing three questions: (1) What impact does policy research have on policymaking? (2) How do policymakers use policy research? and (3) How could policy research more effectively impact policymaking? It should be noted that policy research as used here is closely aligned to the knowledge inputs and rational procedures from policy analysis.

Impact of Policy Research on Policymaking

Rein and White (1977:119-120) note that while there has been a dramatic increase of policy research in the 1970's policy research has had little impact on policymaking. For example, Wholey et al. (1970:46) observe that "the recent literature is unanimous in announcing the general failure of evaluation to affect decisionmaking in a significant way;" and Cohen and Garet (1975:19) comment that "there is little evidence to indicate that government planning offices have succeeded in linking social research and decisionmaking."

Why has policy research been ineffective in policymaking? Caplan et al. (1975: x-xi) classify the reasons for the ineffectiveness of policy research in policymaking in three theories: the Knowledge Specific; the Two-Communities; and the Policy Maker-Constraint.

The Knowledge-Specific Theories. Kaagan and Weinman (1976:64-67) advance the following as reasons for the ineffectiveness of research according to these theories: the narrowness or limitations of the information provided; the research techniques involved; and the personal characteristics of researchers. They propose a multi-disciplinary approach to policy research with a diversity of methodologies and the interpretation of findings in light of practical solutions as the remedy.

The Two-Communities Theories. Kaagan and Weinman (1976:68) note that the reason for the ineffectiveness according to these theories is because researchers and administrators live in different worlds -- with different and often conflicting values, reward systems and languages. The proposed remedy is an approach that integrates researchers and policymakers in the policymaking process in an atmosphere of mutual trust, confidence and empathy.

The Policy Maker-Constraint Theories. These theories contend that the ineffectiveness of research is a consequence of the conditions or constraints surrounding the formulation of policy. For example, Duke (1977:12) notes that information is frequently required faster than researchers can respond. Further, the policymaker's realm of activity requires him to consider variables outside the traditional domain of research, including political feasibility. Kaagan and Weinman (1976:64-67) states that the solution lies in researchers recognizing social and political variables in their research efforts.

How Policymakers Use Policy Research

Rein and White (1977:130) note that policymakers most frequently use research for the following purposes:

(1) As containment of further implementation of programs especially in a political context of mixed commitment and fiscal restraint.

(2) As an instrument of power and political positioning especially to postpone decisions and win political leverage.

(3) As a management device to insure that agencies do what they are expected to do (accountability).

(4) As a weapon in the efforts to reform government.

To this list is added a fifth use suggested by Ingram (1977:2):

(5) As a legitimating activity for a decision already made.

From the above list it is clear that policymakers undoubtedly do make use of research but in their own ways -- ways that fall outside of the traditional problem-solving image rooted in the rational model underlying policy analysis. Rein and White (1977:249) see the problem-solving mode as a process involving the definition of the problem, the identification of alternatives, and the setting of goals; with research serving to clarify the problem, provide information on alternatives and evaluate outcomes. These authors (1977:135-136) conclude that the problem-solving mode in the political policymaking context is largely a myth because politics is "value-expressive" and trades in values while science is "value-neutral" and deals in facts.

Ways to Increase the Impact of Research on Policymaking

Having noted the reasons for the ineffectiveness of policy research in policymaking, the ways policymakers choose to use policy research, and the general impression in the literature that policy research could have a significant impact on policymaking, the key question is: How could policy research more effectively impact policymaking? Exploring this question would give ideas to include in the general descriptive rational-political model of policymaking being contemplated, especially for the description of policy research techniques and the approach policy researchers adopt to inject knowledge inputs and rationality in the process.

Worth (1977:9:11) made some normative suggestions on three broad areas that could make policy research more effective in policymaking: the policy researcher should make increased use of the political model; he should also have an expanded view of the role of research; while the policymaker should exhibit an improved understanding of the environment in which he operates.

Increased Use of the Political Model. The Policy researcher has to realize that only limited rationality is possible in policymaking. As Worth (1977:9) observes:

> Policies often stem from ill-defined goals, alternatives frequently ignored, superior choices tend to give way to the acceptable, and careful data analyses are displaced by expedient interpretations ... the neat logic of rationality may rarely surface .... Instead policy is apt to emerge from the interaction of groups and interests in a power relationship -- the give-and-take of politics ... [in] a process of conflict management and consensus building.

Thus, the degree of impact of the policy researcher is dependent on his ability to bargain and to compromise as well as his tolerance for the ambiguity inherent in the political process. However, the policy researcher should always remember that while he is deeply involved in a political process his prime motive is to aid the cause of rationality.

Expanded View of the Role of Research. The policy researcher has to expand and refine his view of the role of research in policymaking. The major change is in recognizing that the problem-solving view of policymaking is largely a myth in that policymakers seldom start with an articulated and self-evident problem and then together make discrete decisions at a fixed point in time. The role of this type of research must be expanded to include the frequently ill-defined period of problem identification and the recognition that decisions are made over time by different policymakers in the organizational hierarchy. Thus, the functions of policy research should include the identification of problems, the analysis of possible alternatives, and the evaluation of outcomes.

Improved Understanding of the Environment. The policymaker should be aware of the situational-political constraints on the use of research information on policy issues. He should know his own orientation to research and be able to gauge the orientations of those with whom he works. Further, the policymaker should keep the pulse of the political climate and ascertain when traditional research approaches alone cannot provide the necessary guidance for policy decisions.

The reasons for the ineffectiveness of policy research and the suggestions for improvement outlined above seem to indicate that the major problem lies in linking policy research to the policymaking process. It is captured in the observation made by Archibald (1970:8) that:

> ... many of the problems arising in applied social science are best understood as problems of the applied social scientist. Thus our focus is more on role problems than on intellectual problems, and applied social science is defined in terms of its characteristic social relationships rather than in terms of its value orientation.

If, as it appears, policymaking is the interaction of groups and interests in a power relationship involving conflict management and consensus building, what approach should the policy researcher adopt to inject knowledge inputs and rationality into the process? Is he purely a representative of the interests of rationality in the process? Must he enter the power struggle? What is his role vis-à-vis conflict management and consensus building? Some possible approaches for the policy researcher are explored in the next section.

ORIENTATIONS TO THE ROLE OF THE POLICY EXPERT

Archibald (1970:34) develops three orientations to the policy expert's role from detailed interviews with experts in defense research. These three orientations are labeled the academic, the clinical, and the strategic.

The Academic Orientation

The academic orientation is "discipline-oriented". The academic expert shows primary commitment to social science and his principal audience is his colleagues although he considers policymakers as one of his audiences. The academic expert feels he has some responsibility to disseminate his findings and that a portion of the entire social science community has to share in this responsibility. Archibald (1970:11-12) discusses the mode of operation of the academic expert thus:

> His policy concerns tend to define the area he works in - but not the specific problems he works on, the kind of data he collects, or the design or method of his research; for these he turns to the criteria of his discipline. While doing research his orientation is that of the pure scientist. When the research is completed, his policy interests re-enter and he becomes concerned about communicating his findings to decision makers. He assumes that his findings can be made relevant, not that they are relevant, and that the problem is one of figuring out how best to communicate them to policy makers.

The academic expert feels he makes contributions to the policymaking process in the form of a conceptual framework or empirical information. However, he is not clear who his policymaker-client is, how to communicate his material to him, and his impact on the policymaker.

The Clinical Orientation

The clinical expert views his client as an audience at least as important as his colleagues and perhaps even more so. The clinical expert focuses directly on his client's problems and makes specific diagnoses concerning them. He enters in a relationship of direct interaction with the client-system and attempts to make it better understand itself so that it can function more effectively. The clinical expert works on the assumption that the client typically does not know his problem and it is the expert's duty to assist in problem clarification. The clinical expert also assumes that the interests of the expert and his client are congruent, that their relationship is collaborative, and the expert's role is primarily to give help to the client.

The clinical expert has a stronger commitment to reform than his counterpart with an academic orientation. Archibald (1970:14) discusses this commitment in the following way:

> He compartmentalizes his values and his science less than the academic expert; he tends to feel he has both a right and a responsibility to "speak out" on questions involving social goals and values. He tends to talk about his own responsibility and not, like the academic expert, about "some responsibility" or "some of us should be responsible" .... The clinical expert sees himself familiarizing policy makers with a new approach to reality, helping them understand themselves and/or supplying them with techniques. His role vis-à-vis policy makers is interpretive: he helps the client see things that were there all along but that the client was motivated or constrained not to recognize.

The Strategic Orientation

The strategic orientation is "decision-oriented" and sometimes referred to as the "problem approach" and resembles systems analysis in its broadest definition. The strategic expert is like the clinical expert, and unlike the academic expert, in the importance he places on the client audience, and his direct focus and specific diagnoses concerning practical problems. The difference between the strategic and the clinical experts lies in the types of diagnoses they make and their views on the client relationship. While the specific diagnoses of the strategic expert are linked to the resources and environment of the client-system, the diagnoses of the clinical expert concern the client-system itself. The strategic expert is more concerned than the clinical expert about elements of conflict in the expert-client relationship and expects this relationship to include both conflicting and common interests. The strategic expert tends to view his role as one of influencing rather than of helping the client.

Archibald (1970:18) discusses the strategic expert's approach in this manner:

> The strategic expert homes in directly on a policy question, and the boundaries of this question become more relevant than the boundaries of his discipline .... the strategic expert often sheds his disciplinary identity and attempts to master a particular field defined by a set of policy issues "whether it takes him into operations research, or economics, or social psychology, or whatever it takes." The strategic expert thus tends to be a disciplinary maverick, at least when he works in an area ... where, typically, a variety of disciplines are relevant to any one problem.

The strategic expert differs from the academic and clinical experts in the way he speaks about responsibility. He views responsibility in qualitative terms while the academic and clinical experts see responsibility as a quantitative notion referring to how much responsibility they and their colleagues have to work on problems of practical significance. The strategic expert uses "responsible" and "irresponsible" to refer to the manner in which work on practical problems is conducted. To be responsible is to be "precise, careful, and tough-minded in the sense of avoiding sentimentality and wishful thinking " (Archibald, 1970:19).

Comparison of the Role Orientations

Archibald (1970:17-34) compares the academic, clinical, and strategic orientations to the role of the policy expert on a number of factors. On the general focus, the academic orientation is concerned with the discipline and not too much about the relationship between the expert and client; the clinical orientation tends to view the client in the way a psychotherapist would a patient; while the strategic orientation implies "a relationship between expert and client involving mutual assessment, mutual influence, and mixed motives, that is, elements of both conflict and collaboration."

On diagnostic foci, the academic orientation has no specific diagnosis; the clinical orientation requires a specific diagnosis of the client or user audience itself; and the strategic orientation makes a diagnosis concerning the resources or the environment of the client or user audience. By identifying the source of the problem within the client-system the clinical orientation internalizes it for the client. The strategic orientation does just the opposite: it focuses the diagnosis on resources and the environment thus externalizing the source of the problem and putting it outside the client. It is important to note that these diagnostic foci are alternatives and an expert may adopt any one of them to approach a particular problem or situation.

On the relationship between expert and client, the only similarity between the three orientations lies in the assumption of a division of labor and specialization of function between expert and client. Since the academic expert does not enter into any detailed relationship with the client only the clinical and strategic orientations are compared. The strategic expert bounds his task according to the boundaries of the client's problem and views it as it would appear to the client. The strategic expert uses the client's frame of reference in order to understand the problem and as a way to exert the greatest influence. He enters in a relationship that requires give-and-take with the likelihood of mutual influence in an atmosphere that is close to friendship. Any question that the expert could ask the client the client could ask the expert with equal legitimacy. On the other hand, while the clinical expert wants to help the client he does not expect to be helped in return. The clinical expert assumes an interpretative stance in which he has data about the client which the client does not have and further the client has no right to have access to similar data on him. The aim of the clinical expert is to produce a lasting change in the client -- in the way the client looks at himself or at the world -- so that the client will be better able to manage emergent situations. The strategic expert instead attempts to influence the way the client manages a specific situation.

On insignia of expertise, the expert tends to place attention on those factual details which groups important to him are likely to know. The academic expert ensures the placement of all details under the jurisdiction of his discipline is rigorously complete and correct. The clinical expert tries to convey trustworthiness to the client since this orientation can only be effective with the client's trust. The strategic expert attempts to couch his message precisely and accurately since he expects his major clients also to know the details.

The explanations for the non-utilization of research differ among the three orientations. The academic expert uses a gap hypothesis to explain non-utilization: policymakers have different interests and problems and use a different language, hence research is not utilized because of the difficulties in communicating over a cultural gap. The clinical expert blames non-utilization of his advice on the irrationality of the client and assumes that the client is not motivated to act rationally. The strategic expert views the client as rational but not always intelligent. If his advice is not heeded the strategic expert says that the client is wrong, has not thought enough about the problem or is plain stupid.

Each of these three orientations has its own characteristic risks. Archibald (1970:32) describes these risks thus:

> The academic expert runs the risks of irrelevance, of irresponsibility, and of ex post facto feelings (or accusations) of having sold out - since the academic expert through his inattention to client objectives may come close to being a technician. The clinical expert runs the risks of ineffectiveness, of condescension in underestimating [the client's] perceptiveness, and of being manipulative without realizing it. The strategic expert runs the risks of being manipulative and realizing it, of arrogance, and of selling the forest in order to save a tree.

STAGES IN THE POLICYMAKING PROCESS

Starling (1979:11) observes that most of the descriptive models of policymaking involve five stages: identification of needs; formulation of policy proposal; adoption; program operations; and evaluation. Starling (p.13) while noting that several of the policy analysis techniques could be applied to more than one stage, tries to link the numerous techniques to the five stages of the policymaking process. Figure V shows the specific points to which Starling applies the analytic techniques.

This application of the policy analysis techniques to the policymaking process would assist the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by the expert to generate rational inputs.

Mazzoli and Campbell (1973:3) making a political analysis (or giving a policy science view) of a policy decision conceive the process as having four stages:

Issue Definition : Process by which the preference of individuals and groups become translated into political issues.

Proposal Formation : Process by which issues are developed as specific recommendations for a policy change or for maintaining the status quo.

Support Mobilization : Process by which individuals and groups are activated to support or to oppose alternative policy proposals.

Decision Enactment : Process by which an authoritative (i.e. governmental) policy choice is made among alternative proposals.

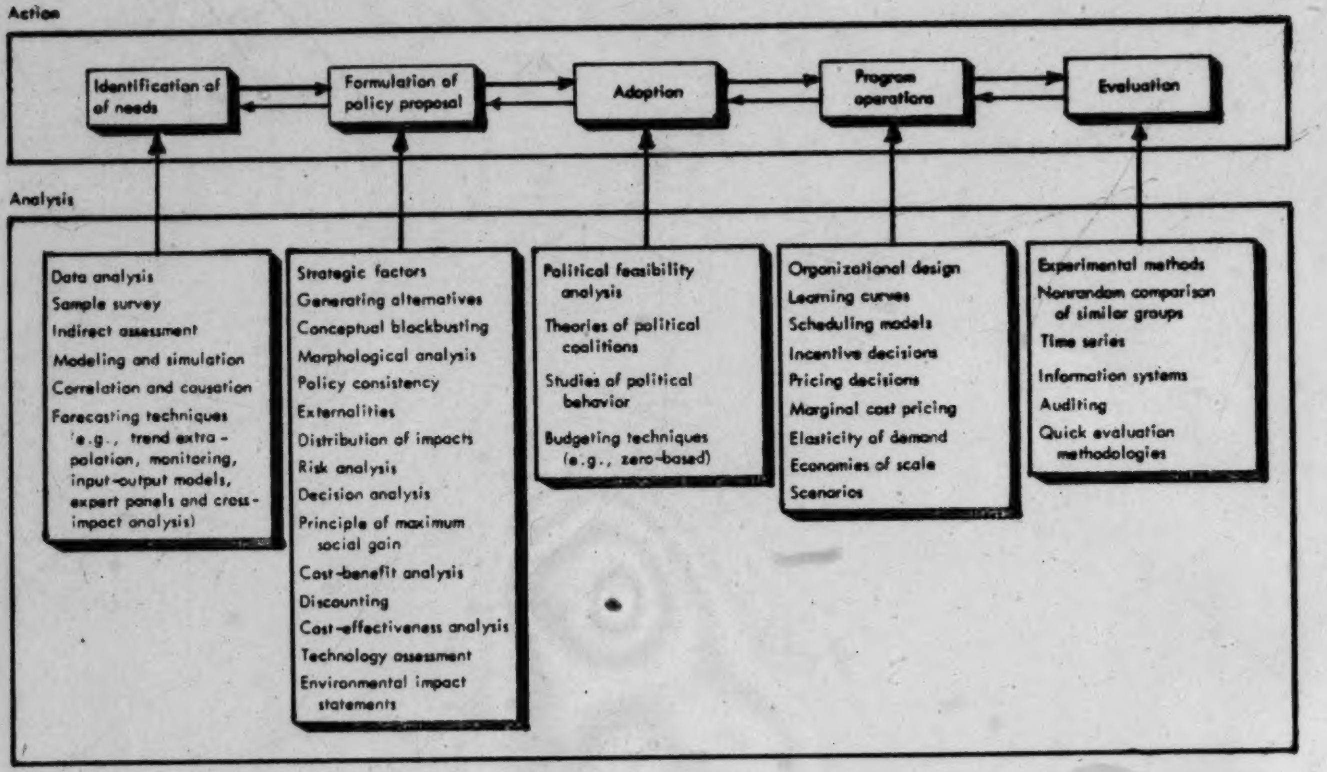

Action
Identification of of needs
Formulation of policy proposal
Adoption
Program operations
Evaluation
Analysis
Data analysis
Sample survey
Indirect assessment
Modeling and simulation
Correlation and causation
Forecasting techniques (e.g., trend extra-polation, monitoring, input-output models, expert panels and cross-impact analysis)
Strategic factors
Generating alternatives
Conceptual blockbusting
Morphological analysis
Policy consistency
Externalities
Distribution of impacts
Risk analysis
Decision analysis
Principle of maximum social gain
Cost-benefit analysis
Discounting
Cost-effectiveness analysis
Technology assessment
Environmental impact statements
Political feasibility analysis
Theories of political coalitions
Studies of political behavior
Budgeting techniques (e.g., zero-based)
Organizational design
Learning curves
Scheduling models
Incentive decisions
Pricing decisions
Marginal cost pricing
Elasticity of demand
Economies of scale
Scenarios
Experimental methods
Nonrandom comparison of similar groups
Time series
Information systems
Auditing
Quick evaluation methodologies

FIGURE V: Linking Policy Analysis Techniques to the Five Stages in the Policymaking Process. (Starling, 1979:13)

Mazzoli and Campbell's (1973) issue definition and decision enactment stages correspond with Starling's (1979) identification of needs and adoption stages. However, their proposal formation and support mobilization are combined in Starling's formulation of policy proposal stage. Mazzoli and Campbell (1973) do not include policy implementation and policy evaluation in their study of the policymaking process but their description of the process to the point when a policy is chosen is useful to describe and analyse the interactions of political actors.

The policymaking stages discussed by Starling (1979) and Mazzoli and Campbell (1973) provide the basis for the policymaking stages used in this study.

CRITERIA FOR TESTING THE USEFULNESS OF A MODEL

Dye (1975:38-39) suggests six criteria to test the usefulness of policymaking models. These criteria are:

(1) The usefulness of a model lies in its ability to order and simplify political life and to facilitate clear thinking and understanding of real-world relationships. A model should not be too complex or too simplistic. If it is too complex it could become so complicated and unmanageable that it would tend to hinder rather than aid understanding. On the other hand, if it oversimplifies relationships it could lead to gross inaccuracies.

(2) A model should identify the really significant aspects of public policymaking. It should have the discriminatory power to

screen out irrelevant variables or circumstances and direct attention to the "real" causes and "significant" consequences of public policy.

(3) A model should be congruent with reality by having real empirical referents. Its concepts should identify processes and relationships that occur in real-world policymaking situations and not symbolize nonexistent phenomena.

(4) A model should be able to communicate meaningfully. It should include concepts that would receive general agreement from everyone or its utility on communication would be greatly diminished.

(5) A model should assist in directing inquiry and research into public policy. Concepts should be operational in that they should refer directly to real-world policymaking processes and relationships that can be observed, tested, and verified.

(6) A model should suggest an explanation of public policy. It should suggest hypotheses about causes and consequences of public policymaking that could be tested against real-world data. A model that merely describes public policymaking is not as useful as one that offers explanations.

SUMMARY

This chapter provided the background literature used for the development of a general descriptive rational-political model of policymaking. The review noted the political nature of policymaking, the emergence of the policy sciences, and the efforts of policy scientists to influence the policymaking process. The two approaches generally used to study policymaking were identified as policy science and policy analysis.

Policy science is descriptive and analyses the policymaking process to understand the behavior of the actors involved using techniques from the social and behavioral sciences. The review identified the "general laws" underlying the explanations in several policy science models for the various stages of the policymaking process. The systems model was assessed as useful in giving a general overview of the policymaking process but deficient in its power to offer explanations of the processes in the political system that transform inputs into policies.

Policy analysis is normative or prescriptive and sets rational standards to evaluate policymaking. It tries to maximize the appropriateness and efficiency of policymaking through knowledge inputs and rationality using techniques from the management sciences. The review identified the basis for rationality of selected policy analysis models, their main processes and linked the models to the policymaking stages they seem most appropriate to describe and analyse.

Although there has been a proliferation of policy research studies in the 1970's this has not had a significant impact on policymaking. Despite the determined efforts of policy scientists to inject rationality into the process policymakers primarily use policy research for political purposes. Three main reasons were seen as responsible for the ineffectiveness of policy research on policymaking. These were: (1) the personal characteristics of researchers, their techniques, and the information they provide do not fit the policymaking context; (2) researchers and policymakers live in two different worlds with different and often conflicting values, reward systems, and languages; and (3) the policymaker is constrained by time and politics. It was concluded that while there were important personal, intellectual, and situational factors contributing to the ineffectiveness of policy research, the main problem seemed to lie in linking policy research to the policymaking process.

Three ways were suggested to increase the impact of policy research on policymaking. These require that: the researcher make increased use of the political model and accept his place in the political process involved in policymaking; the researcher expand his view of the role of research by including the needs of the policymaker; and the policymaker show greater awareness of the situational-political constraints on the use of policy research. Three orientations to the role of the policy scientist were explored to assist in linking policy research to the policymaking process. These three orientations were the academic, the clinical, and the strategic; and their main foci, strategies, strengths and weaknesses were discussed.

Two descriptions of stages in the policymaking process were explored -- one focusing on the application of policy analysis techniques and the other viewing the political processes involved. Finally, six criteria were identified to test the usefulness of the general descriptive rational-political model developed for this study.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

A design involving three distinct sequential phases was employed to accomplish the three-fold purpose of this study.

PHASE I : DEVELOPING THE GENERAL DESCRIPTIVE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL

The general descriptive rational-political model of policymaking (later called "The Rational-Political Model") was developed from the background literature reviewed in Chapter II. The model was comprised of three major components -- rational characteristics, political characteristics, and rational-political characteristics -- in a policymaking process involving five inter-related stages.

PHASE II : APPLYING THE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL TO THE POLICYMAKING PROCESS

The Case Study Approach.

The case study approach was used to apply the rational-political model to the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling plan at Archbishop Jordan High School in Sherwood Park. According to Hofferbert (1974:89) a "case study" is:

> ... an in-depth examination of a particular instance of something ... it presents a detailed rendition of a particular dynamic instance that is, in some essential respects, an example of general ... behavior.

Hofferbert went on to state that most books and articles on the policymaking process are case studies while Macdonald and Walker (1975:4) point out that "as a method of research, the case study commands a respected place in the repertoire of theory builders from a wide range of disciplines."

Generally the object of case studies in policymaking is to direct attention to the dynamics of the relationships of the various groups of actors in the process as well as the policy itself. While case studies can take many forms Seguin (1977:43) notes the following as the format most frequently used:

> 1. A single public-policy decision ... or a set of closely related policy decisions is isolated for investigation.
>
> 2. The case analyst gives a history of the development of policy in the particular area.
>
> 3. Most case studies focus on political conflict. The investigator attempts to identify the interests and individuals involved in hammering out a policy product. Certain issues are selected because they seem, by some standard or other, to embody "representative" participants in the policy process. Affected interest groups are identified and an effort is made to assess the impact of their activities.
>
> 4. Finally, an attempt is made to reconstruct, within the context or bargaining model, the attitudes of the participants and the actions they undertook. The various components that are perceived to have been operative in the policymaking process are weighed and their relative effect on the output is gauged and assessed.

The strengths of the case study approach include the following:

1. The case study can generate as well as test hypotheses (Macdonald and Walker, 1975 :4)
2. The case study provides an analytic understanding of the

decision process, the organizational and political framework, and the substantive policy problems to be found in a "slice of government life " (Fesler, 1962:37).

3. The case study provides a better appreciation of the psychological dimensions and the consequentiality of the policymaking process than any other mode of analysis. (Hofferbert, 1974:138)

On the other hand, several weaknesses are inherent in the case study approach:

1. It is often difficult to decide if the case study is representative of the policymaking process (Hofferbert, 1974:139).
2. The necessary selection and filtering of data weaken the approach (Hofferbert, 1974:139).
3. The practice in the case study of questioning decision-makers after the fact can produce unreliable data (Majone, 1975:62).
4. The identification of all the participants, their respective interests and influence on the process is often an arduous task.
5. It is frequently difficult to establish when "a case" begins and when it ends.

Together with this list of inherent deficiencies in the case study Macdonald and Walker (1975:5) point out a number of problems which the case-study worker encounters:

- problems of the researcher becoming involved in the issues, events or situations under study;
- problems over confidentiality of data;
- problems stemming from competition from different interest groups for access to and control over the data;
- problems concerning publication, such as the need to preserve anonymity of subjects;
- problems arising from the audience being unable to distinguish data from the researcher's interpretation of the data
- and prior to these, although linked to them, there is the problem of how to gain access to the data.

In conclusion, despite the inherent weaknesses and problems faced by the researcher the case study approach still has merits. As Hofferbert (1974:93) observes, case studies have become standard references because of their insight and relevance in understanding the policymaking process. At the same time Ingram (1977:1) notes that case studies based on the experience of policy researchers and policy developers are required since the development of policy research methodologies is still in its infancy.

Data Collection

The researcher was part of the evaluation team commissioned by the Board of Trustees of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School System to evaluate the Jordan Plan as part of the policymaking process. Thus, the researcher was a participant-observer in the policymaking process to the point when the policy choice was made. While this approach may have increased the possibility of the researcher becoming too involved in the issues at stake it strengthened the case study in several ways: it allowed the researcher to record first-hand impressions and insights of the process; it facilitated access to data that may not have been available otherwise; it made the identification of key participants and their respective interests relatively easy; it improved the reliability of the data collected from the participants since these were cross-validated with data from the documents, the perceptions of the evaluation team, and the impressions and insights of the researcher.

Apart from the observations made by the researcher data were collected from documents and interviews.

Documentary Data

These data were obtained from three sources:

(a) The School Board Office. Data from this source were mainly in the form of minutes from board meetings, reports, position papers and briefs, official correspondence, memoranda, newspaper articles, official publications, and other related documents.

(b) The School. Data were collected from the principal's office and the office of the Jordan Plan coordinator in the form of reports, position papers and briefs, correspondence, newspaper articles, records, and other related documents.

(c) The Evaluation Team. Data from this source were the results of the 537 student questionnaires and 216 parent questionnaires; the transcripts of the 76 interviews with parents, students, former students, teachers, and significant others; and memoranda, correspondence, working drafts, and the final report.

Interview Data

The interview data were utilized to supplement and cross-validate data collected from the documentary sources. The following were interviewed: the five members of the Board of Trustees of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School System, the Superintendent, the Principal, the Jordan Plan coordinator, the two parents on the Implementation Advisory Committee, and the members of the evaluation team.

Conducting the Interviews. The interviews were conducted by using a semi-structured schedule enabling the researcher to collect data on important aspects of the process, to clarify areas of uncertainty, and to pursue any impressions and insights the participants may have had. The interview schedules were validated by a panel of three persons familiar with the policymaking process under study. Basically, the questions tried to capture the role of the participants and their perceptions of the roles of others in the policymaking process. The interview schedules used appear in Appendix A.

Interpretation of the Data

A triangulation process was used to interpret the data from the researcher's notes and impressions, the data from the various documents, and the data from the thirteen interviews. Then the roles of the experts and the politicians and the various aspects of the policymaking process were described and analysed using the rational-political model.

PHASE III: TESTING THE USEFULNESS OF THE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL

The usefulness of the rational-political model to describe and analyse the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan was tested against the following six criteria adapted from Dye (1975):

Criterion I:	Usefulness of the rational-political model in ordering and simplifying political life.
Criterion II:	Usefulness of the rational-political model in identifying the really significant aspects of policymaking.
Criterion III:	Usefulness of the rational-political model in achieving congruence with reality by having real empirical referents.
Criterion IV:	Usefulness of the rational-political model in communicating meaningfully.
Criterion V:	Usefulness of the rational-political model in directing inquiry and research.
Criterion VI:	Usefulness of the rational-political model in suggesting explanations about public policymaking.

SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the design to accomplish the three-fold purpose of the study. The discussion centered on: the way the rational-political model would be developed; the characteristics and the advantages and disadvantages of the case study; the implications of the researcher's involvement in the policymaking process as part of the evaluation team, the data sources and data collection procedures; the method of interpreting the data to satisfy the study purpose; and how the usefulness of the rational-political model would be tested.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF THE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL AND ITS APPLICATION

The rational-political model was designed to facilitate:

1. the description and analysis of a policymaking process conceived as having five sequential but interrelated stages;
2. the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies policy experts employ to generate rational inputs for the policymaking process;
3. the description and analysis of the interactions of politicians in the policymaking process; and
4. the description and analysis of the interactions between policy experts and politicians (rational-political interactions) in the policymaking process.

The rational-political model was developed in four phases:

Phase I: The Five-Stage Policymaking Process.
Phase II: Rational Characteristics.
Phase III: Political Characteristics.
Phase IV: Rational-Political Characteristics.

The basic structure of the rational-political model is illustrated in Figure VI. Each of the four developmental phases of the rational-political model is now discussed and the resulting details are illustrated in a figure after each phase.

POLICYMAKING STAGES	RATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	RATIONAL-POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS	POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS

Figure VI: Basic Structure of the Rational-Political Model -- Policymaking Stages, Rational Characteristics, Rational-Political Characteristics, and Political Characteristics.

Phase I: The Five-Stage Policymaking Process

Like most of the other descriptive models of policymaking in the literature the rational-political model views the process as having five distinct stages. However, these five stages are given general names to indicate primarily the policy function of the stage and to reflect also the perspectives of both policy analysis and policy science. They are adapted from Starling (1979) and Mazzoli and Campbell (1973) and labelled identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation, and policy review. These are illustrated in Figure VII.

Phase II: Rational Characteristics

In order to describe and analyse the techniques and strategies policy experts employ in generating rational inputs for the policymaking process the rational-political model draws elements from the policy analysis models reviewed in Chapter II for its rational characteristics. Included are the criteria for rationality in each of the policy analysis models, the main processes, and an indication of the policymaking stages that each model is capable of describing and analysing. These rational characteristics of the rational-political model will facilitate the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by policy experts from the broad perspective of relevant policy analysis models. In this way the key elements of the model or models in operation would be highlighted.

The Pure Rationality Model. The criteria for rationality in

POLICYMAKING STAGES	RATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	RATIONAL-POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS	POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS
1. Identification of Issues 2. Policy Development 3. Policy Choice 4. Policy Implementation 5. Policy Review			

Figure VII: The Rational-Political Model : Phase I -- The Five Policymaking Stages.

this model are:

1. knowledge of all the society's value preferences and their relative weight
2. knowledge of all available policy alternatives
3. knowledge of all the consequences of each policy alternative
4. calculation of the ratio of achieved to sacrificed societal values for each policy alternative, and
5. selection of the most efficient policy alternative.

These criteria are perfect and are regarded as the absolute standards of rationality to judge the policymaking process.

The pure rationality model seems appropriate to describe and analyse four of the five stages in the policymaking process: identification of issues, policy development, policy choice and policy review.

The Satisficing Model. This model uses process criteria of rationality where an elastic discretionary "aspirational level" measures policy alternatives. The stages involved are:

1. identification of obvious alternatives based on recent policymaking experience
2. evaluation of the expected payoffs of the alternatives in terms of their satisfactory quality
3. a lowering or raising of the "aspirational level" depending on the difficulty in finding a satisfactory alternative, and
4. choice of the first alternative that appears to have a

satisfactory payoff and a discontinuation of any further search alternatives.

The satisficing model seems most appropriate for the policy development and policy choice stages of the policymaking process.

The Incremental Model. This model relies on process criteria of rationality. The process reflects the following:

1. the scarcity of resources precludes the exploration of all alternatives to an existing policy
2. the legitimacy of existing policies is accepted because of the difficulty in predicting the consequences of new policies
3. existing policies represent significant sunk costs
4. incremental changes are politically expedient, and
5. in the absence of agreed-upon societal goals it is easier to continue existing policies.

The incremental model seems most appropriate to describe and analyse the policy development and the policy choice stages of the policymaking process.

The Mixed Scanning Model. The criteria for rationality in this model lie in the "normative integrity" of policymakers to use their basic values to make "strategic" policy choices and to arrange for incrementing implementation.

This model seems to apply to the three stages of policy development, policy choice and policy implementation.

The Optimal Model. The basis for rationality in this model lies in the procedures followed in the policymaking process. The major stages include the following:

1. establishing operational goals and ranking them in order of priority
2. establishing a set of other significant values and ranking them in order of priority
3. preparing a set of major alternative policies including some "good ones"
4. preparing reliable predictions of the significant benefits and costs of the various alternatives
5. comparing the predicted benefits and costs of the various alternatives and identifying the "best" ones.
6. evaluating the benefits and costs of the best alternatives and deciding whether they are "good" or not
7. motivating the implementation of the policy
8. implementing the policy
9. evaluating policymaking after the policy has been implemented
10. providing communication and feedback to interconnect all stages.

This model seems to apply to all five stages of the policymaking process: identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review.

The elements from the relevant policy analysis models that are needed for the rational-political model as discussed in Chapter II are summarized and placed in Figure VIII.

Phase III: Political Characteristics

In order to describe and analyse the interactions of the political actors in the policymaking process the rational-political model has to include elements from the policy science models reviewed earlier in Chapter II for its political characteristics. Of special interest are the "general laws" underlying the explanations for the interactions of the political actors and the policymaking stages covered by each of these models. Together these key elements from the policy science models would allow a comprehensive description and analysis of the interaction of political actors in the policymaking process and the identification of the models in operation.

The key elements from the policy science models are now summarized.

The Institutional Model. According to this model governmental institutions authoritatively determine, implement, and enforce public policy; thus playing the central role in policymaking.

The general laws underlying the explanations in this model are:

1. government legitimizes policies and makes them legal obligations
2. government policies are universal in their application
3. government monopolizes legitimate coercion in society
4. individuals and groups strive to make governmental institutions enact their value preferences into public policy.

POLICYMAKING STAGES	RATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	RATIONAL-POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS	POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS
	- Complete knowledge - Choice made on efficiency - An elastic discretionary "aspirational level" of policymakers - Choice made on satisfactory quality - Process criteria reflecting scarcity of resources, practical considerations, and political expediency - Choice made on potential acceptability - The basic values of the policymakers guided by "some normative integrity" - Choice made on consistency with the basic values of the policymakers - Procedural criteria based on rational and extrarational processes - Choice is the product of rational procedures		

Figure VIII: The Rational-Political Model : Phase II -- The Rational Characteristics

Although the institutional model is capable of explaining all five stages in the policymaking process its primary focus seems to be the implementation stage.

The Group Model. This model rests on the notion that interaction among groups is the central fact of political life and this group interaction determines public policy.

The general laws underlying the explanations in this model are:

1. individuals with common interests band themselves together in groups to make demands and exert pressure on the political system to have their value preferences enacted as policy
2. the political system manages group conflict by: establishing rules of the game for the group struggle; arranging compromises and balancing interests; enacting compromises into public policy; and enforcing these compromise policies
3. policies are enacted to reflect the value preferences of those groups gaining in influence at the expense of those groups losing influence.

The interest group model appears to focus attention mainly on the identification of issues, policy development and policy choice stages of the policymaking process.

The Elite-Mass Model. According to this model the elite in society makes policy for the masses.

The general laws underlying the explanations in the elite-mass model are:

1. society is divided into the few who have power (the elite)

and the many who do not (the masses)

2. members of the elite are not typical of the masses; they are drawn mainly from the upper socioeconomic strata of society
3. movement of nonelites to elite positions is slow but continous
4. members of the elite share consensus on the basic values of the social system and its preservation
5. public policy reflects the value preferences of the elite rather than the demands of the masses
6. the elite is subject to relatively little direct influence from the apathetic masses.

The elite-mass model is concerned with the identification of issues, policy development, policy choice and policy review stages of the policymaking process.

The Systems Model. According to this model public policy results from the responses of the political system to environmental forces.

The general laws underlying the explanations in the systems model are:

1. the environment is any condition or circumstance outside the boundaries of the political system
2. inputs are the environmental forces that elicit responses from the political system
3. the political system is "that group of interrelated structures and processes which functions authoritatively

to allocate values in society" (Dye, 1975:36)

4. outputs of the political system constitute public policy
5. public policy influence the environment, new inputs, and even the political system itself.

The systems model seems to cover all the five stages of the policymaking process in a general manner.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model are illustrated in Figure IX.

Phase IV: Rational-Political Characteristics

The rational-political characteristics of the model will facilitate the description and analysis of the approaches the expert uses to inject rational inputs into the policymaking process and the tactics the politician uses to consciously manipulate the expert's rational inputs to achieve his own ends. To do this the rational-political characteristics include Archibald's (1970) three orientations to the role of the expert -- the academic, the clinical, and the strategic -- and some possible role orientations underlying the politician's purposes in using the expert's rational inputs.

The main elements of the three orientations to the role of the expert appear in Figure X.

While Archibald (1970) supplies complete details for the three orientations to the role of the expert there is no corresponding discussion in the literature reviewed on orientations to the role of the politician. However, working from the overall orientation of the politician -- to consciously manipulate human relationships to achieve

POLICYMAKING STAGES	RATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	RATIONAL-POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS	POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS
			- Governmental institutions authoritatively determine, implement, and enforce policy - Individuals and groups strive to make governmental institutions enact their preferences as policy - The political system manages group conflict on policy issues - Interest groups pressure the political system to have their preferences enacted as policy - The elite makes policy for the masses - Policies reflect elite value preferences rather than demands of the masses - The political system is a group of interrelated structures and procedures authoritatively determining policies in response to environmental inputs - Policies influence the environment, new inputs, and the political system.

Figure IX: The Rational-Political Model : Phase III -- The Political Characteristics.

Academic orientation	*Clinical orientation*	*Strategic orientation*
Discipline-oriented: applied activities bounded by discipline.	Client-oriented: applied activities bounded by Alter.	Decision-oriented: applied activities bounded by problem and client capabilities.
Non-specific diagnosis. Works in *area* defined by policy concerns, but on problems chosen in terms of disciplinary criteria.	Specific diagnosis concerning Alter, that is, the user audience itself. Talks about policy makers or policy process.	Specific diagnosis concerning Alter's resources and/or environment. Talks about policy, content of policy.
Alter assumed to know own problem, or at least not the expert's worry if Alter does not.	Alter assumed not to understand own problem; expert performs interpretive function.	Alter may or may not know own problem, but assumed to often ask the wrong questions about it.
Contributes to Alter*: conceptual framework, general principles, and/or empirical information.	Contributes to Alter: new way of approaching reality, self-understanding, and/or techniques.	Contributes to Alter: analysis of practical problem as it "should" confront Alter, explication of alternatives, and/or specific recommendations.
Disciplinary colleagues remain the primary audience, user audiences secondary.	User audiences at least as important as disciplinary colleagues.	User audiences at least as important as disciplinary colleagues.
Insignia of expertise: precision on disciplinary details.	Insignia of expertise: perhaps careful specification of intentions and values.	Insignia of expertise: precision on the details of Alter's data.
Expert feels he or his discipline has *some* responsibility to contribute to the solution of practical problems.	Expert feels it is *his* responsibility, and his discipline's, to contribute as much as possible to the solution of practical problems.	Responsibility defined in terms of being careful and precise when working on practical problems and when interacting with user audiences.
Stated interest in communicating to Alter, often through intermediary.	Stated interest in helping Alter. Asymmetrical.	Stated interest in influencing Alter. Symmetrical.
Alter seen as different. Non-utilization explained by cultural gap, missing middlemen, or fact that expert contribution is only one of many inputs.	Alter seen as often irrational, constrained. Non-utilization explained by resistance and/or non-supportive environment.	Alter seen as usually rational but not always intelligent. Non-utilization explained by misunderstanding, ignorance, parochial interests and/or inertia.

Figure X: The Three Orientations to the Role of the Policy Expert (Archibald, 1970:31)

*Alter is a neutral term for the non-scientific consumers who are "role others" to the expert and in the rational-political model refers to the politician.

goals -- together with the purposes reviewed in Chapter II to which the politician directs the expert's rational inputs and placing these against the three orientations to the role of the expert, a number of very interesting descriptive and analytic questions could be generated for orientations to the role of the politician. Basically, two sets of questions could be generated depending on whether the expert or the politician initiates interactions.

Questions with the Expert as Initiator

1. When the expert uses the academic orientation to his role what tactic does the politician adopt in manipulating the expert's rational inputs?

    1.1 To what purpose does the politician direct the expert's rational inputs in the academic orientation? For example, as containment of implementation?
    - as an instrument of power and political positioning?
    - as a legitimating activity?

2. When the expert uses the clinical orientation to his role what tactic does the politician adopt in manipulating the expert's rational inputs?

    2.1 To what purpose does the politician direct the expert's rational inputs in the clinical orientation? For example, as containment of implementation?
    - as an instrument of power and political positioning?

- as a legitimating activity?

3. When the expert uses the strategic orientation to his role what tactic does the politician adopt in manipulating the expert's rational inputs?

    3.1 To what purpose does the politician direct the expert's rational inputs in the strategic orientation? For example, as containment of implementation?
    - as an instrument of power and political positioning?
    - as a legitimating activity?

Questions with the Politician as Initiator

1. When the politician intends to use the expert's rational inputs to contain implementation what tactic does he employ to manipulate interactions with the expert?

    1.1 Which role orientation does the expert adopt in response to the politician's intention to use his rational inputs to contain implementation?

2. When the politician intends to use the expert's rational inputs as an instrument of power and political positioning what tactic does he employ to manipulate interactions with the expert?

    2.1 Which role orientation does the expert adopt in response to the politician's intention to use his rational inputs as an instrument of power and political positioning?

3. When the politician intends to use the expert's rational inputs as a management device to insure accountability what tactic does he employ to manipulate interactions with the expert?
    3.1 Which role orientation does the expert adopt in response to the politician's intention to use his rational inputs as a management device to insure accountability?

4. When the politician intends to use the expert's rational inputs as a weapon of reform what tactic does he employ to manipulate interactions with the expert?
    4.1 Which role orientation does the expert adopt in response to the politician's intention to use his rational inputs as a weapon of reform?

5. When the politician intends to use the expert's rational inputs as a legitimating activity what tactic does he employ to manipulate interactions with the expert?
    5.1 Which role orientation does the expert adopt in response to the politician's intention to use his rational inputs as a legitimating activity?

Figure XI summarizes and illustrates the rational-political characteristics of the model.

The complete rational-political model is illustrated in Figure XII.

POLICYMAKING STAGES	RATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	RATIONAL-POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS	POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS

		Expert's Role Orientation
		- Academic Orientation
		  - Discipline-oriented
		- Clinical Orientation
		  - Client-oriented
		- Strategic Orientation
		  - Decision-oriented
		
		Politician's Role Orientation
		- Overall orientation is to manipulate relationships to achieve political ends
		- Orientations in response to academic, clinical, or strategic role orientation of expert
		- Orientations to coincide with any of five possible political purposes.	

Figure XI: The Rational-Political Model. Phase IV -- The Rational-Political Characteristics

POLICYMAKING STAGES	RATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS	RATIONAL-POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS	POLITICAL CHARACTERISTICS
1. Identification of Issues 2. Policy Development 3. Policy Choice 4. Policy Implementation 5. Policy Review	Function: To facilitate description and analysis of techniques and strategies experts use to generate rational inputs. - Complete knowledge - Choice made on efficiency - An elastic discretionary "aspirationary level" of policymakers - Choice made on satisfactory quality - Process criteria reflecting scarcity of resources, practical considerations, and political expediency - Choice made on potential acceptability - The basic values of the policymakers guided by "some normative integrity" - Choice made on consistency with the basic values of the policymakers - Procedural criteria based on rational and extrarational processes - Choice is the product of rational procedures	Function: To facilitate description and analysis of the interactions between experts and politicians. Expert's Role Orientation - Academic Orientation - Discipline-oriented - Clinical Orientation - Client-oriented - Strategic Orientation - Decision-oriented Politician's Role Orientation - Overall orientation is to manipulate relationships to achieve political ends - Orientations in response to academic, clinical, or strategic role orientation of expert - Orientations to coincide with any of five possible political purposes	Function: To facilitate description and analysis of the interactions between and among politicians. - Governmental institutions authoritatively determine, implement, and enforce policy - Individuals and groups strive to make governmental institutions enact their preferences as policy - The political system manages group conflict on policy issues - Interest groups pressure the political system to have their preferences enacted as policy - The elite makes policy for the masses - Policies reflect elite value preferences rather than demands of the masses - The political system is a group of interrelated structures and procedures authoritatively determining policies in response to environmental inputs - Policies influence the environment, new inputs, and the political system.

Figure XII: The Complete Rational-Political Model

APPLYING THE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL TO THE POLICYMAKING PROCESS

As illustrated in Figure XII the rational-political model will be used to describe and analyse each of the five stages of the policymaking process -- identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review. The three main foci of this description and analysis are:

1. the techniques and strategies used by experts to generate rational inputs for the policymaking process
2. the interactions of politicians in the policymaking process, and
3. the interactions between experts and politicians in the policymaking process.

Techniques and Strategies of Experts to Generate Rational Inputs

The rational characteristics of the model will facilitate the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by experts to generate rational inputs by identifying the policy analysis model that is apparently in operation, the criteria for rationality that were used, and the procedures involved. It is possible that in different stages of the policymaking process depending on the function elements of a policy analysis model may be more in evidence than others.

Interactions of Politicians

The political characteristics of the model will facilitate the description and analysis of the interactions of politicians by identifying the policy science model apparently in operation, the general laws underlying the explanations of the interactions, and the procedures involved. Here again elements of one policy science model may be more in evidence in one stage than in other stages of the policymaking process.

Interactions between Experts and Politicians

The rational-political characteristics of the model will facilitate the description and analysis of the interactions between experts and politicians by identifying the orientations of the experts and politicians in this relationship. The experts' role orientations will be described and analysed in the light of three role orientations -- the academic, the clinical, and the strategic. The politicians' role orientation will be described and analysed using the questions generated from the overall orientation of politicians and purposes to which they direct rational inputs. It is possible that the role orientations for both the experts and politicians may be different in the various stages of the policymaking process.

An overall description and analysis of the entire five-stage policymaking process will be attempted using the model to highlight the most significant rational, political, and rational-political characteristics involved.

SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the development of the rational-political model and the application of the model to the policymaking process under study. The five stages in the policymaking process were identified as identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review. The characteristics of the rational-political model consisted of rational, political, and rational-political elements. The model will be applied to each of the five stages and the overall policymaking process.

CHAPTER V

APPLICATION OF THE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL TO THE POLICYMAKING PROCESS

This chapter is based on the application of the rational-political model to the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan at Archbishop Jordan High School (ABJ) in Sherwood Park. The description and analysis that result take the form of a case study. The data for the case study were taken from three main sources: (1) the researcher's notes while involved as part of the evaluation team in the policymaking process; (2) the various documents from the Superintendent's office, the school, and the evaluation team; and (3) the interviews with the five members of the Board of Trustees of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School System, the Superintendent, the ABJ principal, the Jordan Plan coordinator, the two parents on the Jordan Plan advisory committee, and the members of the evaluation team.

The case study is organized in seven major sections. The first section presents the background to the case study. Sections 2-6 give the description and analysis of the policymaking process with one section for each of the five policymaking stages in the rational-political model -- identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review. The final section discusses the conclusions of the case study.

BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY

The Community

Sherwood Park is a hamlet 25 kilometres east of Edmonton. The population has grown considerably from 1970 to 1978 from around 8,000 residents to 28,000. Sherwood Park has received a sizeable number of new residents from other parts of Canada who migrated to Alberta apparently because of its brighter economic prospects. Most of the residents work in Edmonton.

In terms of facilities the situation has changed dramatically over the decade of the 1970's. In the early 1970's residents had limited access to library services, recreational facilities, and professional services in Sherwood Park. However, Ingram et al. (1978:59) in their report note that by the time of the Jordan Plan evaluation Sherwood Park had become a much more urban community in the preceding five years with access to library facilities, recreational opportunities, and professional services right at hand.

The Jordan Plan

In September, 1973, a four-day instructional week (The Jordan Plan) was introduced/into Archbishop Jordan Junior/Senior High School in Sherwood Park. The Plan involved a rescheduling of the school week in such a way that the 1400 minutes per week of official instructional time were redistributed over four days rather than the traditional five. Each of the four instructional days was divided into seven fifty-minute periods, a ten-minute morning break, and a thirty-minute lunch break.

With this new arrangement of time, the students would fulfill their legal requirements in four days and be given the opportunity to spend the fifth day, Wednesday, as they and their parents wished. However, a program of sporting, cultural and recreational activities was organized for students wishing to participate. Teachers were required to work on Wednesday mornings to satisfy their obligations under the School Act.

Prebble (1975:73-74) identifies the following as objectives of the Jordan Plan:

> 1. To make total research facilities more readily available to the students. Public libraries, university facilities, industrial plants, etc., are more readily available during the normal working day. The Plan allows for these experiences.
>
> 2. Outdoor education, field-trips, be they in the area of the sciences, fine arts, culture, etc., should not impinge on others. They are experiences which are most easily gained during the day. For example, a visit to the Legislative Assembly to observe government in action. However, the group leaves behind students whose classes are minimized due to classes being missed, and the accompanying teacher leaves classes that must be managed by other people. The Plan facilitates these experiences.
>
> 3. To allow for greater parent and community involvement in the school. The school day is so fully scheduled that it is nearly impossible to allow community agencies to share their talents. These services then are on an after school basis or weekends. This is after major energies have been expended at school, or when not all young people are free to participate for various reasons.
>
> 4. To facilitate professional services. Students invariably miss classes for medical, dental, driver-examination, etc., appointments. The Jordan Plan would allow most of these to happen during regular business hours without having to miss class time.

5. To facilitate parental consultation. In order for a parent to consult with a teacher during a working day, teachers generally need to be called out of classes. Thus, the rights of one are infringing on the rights of another. The Plan will alleviate this problem.

6. To provide more effective planning time to teaching staffs. Teachers now get a so-called preparation period daily. However, when a teacher has this period, other members of his department may be teaching.

The policy issue to be examined in the case study centers on a political controversy that had arisen over the Jordan Plan. A group of adults was applying pressure on the School Board to abandon the Jordan Plan and to reinstate the conventional five-day week schedule. This group complained that the Jordan Plan was wasting students' time and encouraging laziness, lowering educational standards, and undermining the work ethic. Together with these complaints from this group of adults the School Board felt that since the Jordan Plan was in operation for five years it was time for a review. As a result , on January 9, 1978 the School Board passed a motion to invite an outside agency to evaluate the Jordan Plan.

Identification of Experts and Politicians in the Case Study.

The experts in this case study were identified as members of the evaluation team from the University of Alberta that was commissioned by the School Board to study the controversy over the Jordan Plan and assist in its resolution. Thus, the focus of the discussion on the techniques and strategies used by experts to generate rational inputs for the policymaking process would be on the activities of these individuals.

The main politicians in this case study were identified as members of the School Board, members of the Superintendent's office, the staff of ABJ and adult groups. The School Board was elected and functioned under a chairman while the staffs of the Superintendent's office and ABJ were appointed under the leadership of a Superintendent and a Principal respectively. Two important points must be noted with regards politicians as identified in this case study. First, while the Superintendent and Principal and their staffs were experts on educational matters their role in the policymaking process as conceptualized in this study was primarily a political one. Second, members of the adult interest groups involved in the political process were regarded as politicians in a different sense than the other three groups mentioned. The interest groups were outside of the organized system of governance of the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District while the other three groups were operating within it.

The focus of the discussion on political interactions for each of the five stages of the policymaking process would be on the identification of the group of politicians which appears to have primary responsibility for that stage of the process and how this group manipulates the interactions of the other political actors. For example, if the School Board were identified as the political group with primary responsibility for any stage of the policymaking process, the political interactions of the Superintendent's office, ABJ staff, and the adult groups would be discussed as they relate to the School Board's actions. Likewise, the focus for the discussion of the rational-political interactions would be mainly on the interactions between members of the evaluation team and the group of politicians which has the responsibility for each stage of the policymaking process.

THE IDENTIFICATION OF ISSUES STAGE

Political Interactions

The political interactions during the identification of the issues surrounding the Jordan Plan involved two main adult groups, the elected School Board, the Superintendent's office, and the school. The two main adult groups were identified as the group opposing the Plan and the group supporting the Plan. A third group of adults, identified as the indifferent group, represented the majority of adults in Sherwood Park, but was not actively involved in the policymaking process. The various documentary and interview data show that the School Board was the political group that had primary responsibility for this stage of the policymaking process since it commissioned an evaluation of the Plan. The characteristics, activities, and interactions of the adult groups, the School Board, the Superintendent's office, and the school are now described and analysed using the rational-political model.

The Opposing Group. The interview and questionnaire data on parents of Sherwood Park suggest that the opposing group had five or six key people who were influential in Sherwood Park. These individuals were not among the most active in the Catholic church nor did they display any great interest in or support of the school system or ABJ. They rarely became involved in school activities and almost never attended school meetings. These individuals were relatively new to Sherwood Park having moved from other parts of Canada. Virtually all the key individuals in this opposing group were termed "disgruntled parents" since at one time or the other their children had problems with the school.

The opposing group apparently valued the work ethic. Translating this into education this group viewed schooling in terms of structured learning, the fundamentals and strict discipline. The school should prepare students for the regimen of a typical work week -- students must learn the skills to qualify for a job to "make it" in a competitive world. The Plan ignored the values of the opposing group by promoting free choice among students in the use of some of their time. This was perceived as encouraging laziness, tampering with occupational skills, and in the long run, undermining the work ethic. By the same token, this group frowned upon the idea that teachers needed "a whole day off" to plan their work. The opposing group felt its needs and values could only be served if the Plan were terminated.

Predominant attitudes among the opposing group seemed to be guardedness, pessimism, and reverence for traditional values and structures.

Interview, questionnaire, and documentary data show that the opposing group effectively used the political process in its fight to terminate the Plan. Starting with complaints, criticisms, and threats to withdraw their children from the school the opposing group was instrumental in creating a public controversy over the Plan. It succeeded in bringing the controversy into the political arena in

October, 1977 when the School Board was most vulnerable -- at election time. The opposing group supported a candidate in the election whose entire platform was based on opposition to the Jordan Plan. The School Board was forced to hold a public discussion on the Plan since the issue appeared to be one that could win or lose votes. The opposing group won a significant concession from the School Board when all candidates made a commitment to resolve the Jordan Plan controversy soon after the elections.

The opposing group took its struggle a further stage by attempting to strenghten its position and increase pressure on the School Board. It made a telephone survey of three hundred and forty-four parents and claimed that one hundred and fifty-eight parents were against and one hundred and fifty-one for the Plan. In December, 1977 the opposing group presented the results of its telephone survey and a long list of criticisms against the Plan in a brief to the School Board demanding its termination. Mainly because of this pressure the School Board passed a resolution on January 9, 1978 to commission an outside evaluation team to study the Plan and the results would be used to determine the fate of the Plan for the new school year.

The opposing group kept the controversy at the forefront of public attention and continued to pressure the School Board to address its demands. In mid-January, 1978 one parent from the opposing group presented a further brief to the School Board with criticisms and demands to abandon the Plan. In February, 1978 a group of nineteen educators from Sherwood Park submitted a brief to the School Board on behalf of the opposing group criticizing the Plan on educational grounds. There were a few cases where members of the opposing group used the extreme tactic of harassing Board members by making derogatory remarks over the telephone. The news media were also used to good effect by the opposing group -- from the period December 15, 1977 to March 15, 1978 no less than seven articles and letters appeared in the Sherwood Park News and the Edmonton Journal criticizing the Plan and the School Board.

The Supporting Group. According to the interview and questionnaire data on parents in Sherwood Park the supporting group was made up of parents who were active in the Catholic church. These individuals were staunch supporters who showed keen interest in the school system and participated in the affairs of Archbishop Jordan High School. This group seemed to have faith in the school system and expected it to do what was right for their children.

This group valued the individuality of their children and viewed education in terms of the extent to which the school provided freedom in learning. This freedom must afford opportunities for students to take on responsibility as they grow older, to make decisions and stand by the consequences, and to learn how to make effective use of leisure time. This group did not feel that freedom in school would interfere with occupational skills. In fact, this group felt freedom would make students more adaptable to the world of work and to life in general.

The supporting group did not enter directly into a fight with the opposing group over the Plan. It apparently felt that the best way to show its support for the Plan was to stay away from the conflict and allow the School Board and the school people to deal with it. This group believed that the Board was on its side. As a result, it did not try to refute the criticisms of the opposing group by writing letters to the newspapers or by taking political action. However, one parent from this group made a presentation to the School Board on January 23, 1978 supporting the Plan and praising the Board for commissioning an outside evaluation team.

The School Board. Data from the various sources on the School Board account for the following description. There were four men and one woman on the School Board. The three members of the School Board who were re-elected in October, 1977 were committed to the Plan because they were responsible for its initiation. The two new members seemed to have some reservations about the Plan feeling that it may have been used to divert attention from other shortcomings of the school. The three re-elected Board members were long standing members of the community, staunch church members and keen supporters of the school system. The two new members to the School Board seemed to represent the new breed of citizens in Sherwood Park that came to the district from other parts of Canada.

The School Board was committed to a good Catholic education for the children in the school system. Individual members seemed to suppress strong personal opinions that appeared to be contrary to what the School Board as a collectivity stood for but together felt it was their public duty to foster what was good for education in the system.

Prior to its election in October, 1977 the School Board received complaints and threats over the Plan from a few disgruntled parents. The School Board seemed to downplay these complaints and threats by responding that except for a few individual problems the Plan generally was working well. However, when the opposing group made the Plan into a public controversy and caused it to be a major election issue the Board was forced to take action. It held a public discussion on the Plan and all candidates seeking to be members of the new School Board made a commitment to resolve the issue soon after the elections.

The School Board willingly received the complaints, letters, and briefs from the opposing group and in response to these demands resolved on January 9, 1978 to commission an outside evaluation team to study the Plan. The Board did not try to defend the Plan or rebutt the articles in the press or the letters from the opposing group. After the evaluation team was commissioned the School Board refrained from answering any questions on the Plan saying that it was under study and a decision would be made on the results.

The Superintendent's Office. Documentary and interview data suggest that the Superintendent came to the school system in 1973 with the reputation of an innovator. He was one of the prime forces behind the Plan before its implementation in 1973. The Superintendent and the Principal at ABJ at the time of the controversy had worked together before coming to the school system -- the Superintendent as Principal and the Principal as teacher. The Superintendent was the chief executive officer of the School Board and advised on all matters relating to education. The Superintendent like the School Board was committed to a good Catholic education for the children in the school system.

The Superintendent's office received complaints and criticisms from a few parents from the opposing group in September and October, 1977. However, no concerns about the Plan were raised before the School Board prior to the October, 1977 elections. In January, 1978 following the decision by the School Board to commission an outside team to review the Plan the Superintendent arranged for a team of researchers from the University of Alberta to conduct the study. The Superintendent served as a member of the advisory committee to the evaluation team and assisted also in the arrangements for data collection for the evaluation.

The School. Ingram et al. (1978:60-61) describe ABJ as a small, basically academic high school in a somewhat competitive situation. Across the road was a large comprehensive high school operated by the County of Strathcona; a twenty-minute drive could take students to the high schools operated by the Edmonton Separate School Board. For a number of years the staff recognized the importance of establishing an attractive special character for ABJ. However, the quality of education at ABJ compared favorably with other high schools in similar circumstances in Alberta and its basketball team received consistently top ranking in its division in the province.

The School Board and school records show that practically all the teachers at ABJ were Catholics. During the operation of the

Jordan Plan from 1973 to 1978 there were three principals and at least three different Jordan Plan coordinators. The evaluation team's interviews with teachers, administrators, and School Board members indicate that over the years the teachers were regarded as industrious and dedicated to a good Catholic education. Most of the teachers were supportive of the Plan but were tired of the criticisms levelled against the school by parents. They wanted the controversy over the Plan resolved so that they could go ahead with educating the students. The senior teachers of the school were involved in the initial implementation and were very supportive of the Plan. A certain amount of antagonism existed between the teachers at ABJ and other teachers in Sherwood Park because they were perceived as enjoying special working conditions under the Plan.

During this stage of the policymaking process the Principal and staff of ABJ received complaints and criticisms from a few parents from the opposing group. The school did not get involved in the political struggle and allowed the School Board to take action. The Principal and the staff at ABJ assisted the evaluation team to collect data for the study. The Principal, Vice Principal, one teacher and one student served on the advisory committee to the evaluation team.

Application of the Political Characteristics

The political characteristics of the rational-political model which were adapted from the interest group model best explain the political interactions of the two adult groups and the elected School

Board in this stage of the policymaking process. It is clear that members of each of the two groups -- the opposing group and the supporting group -- in Truman's (1951) terms, shared common values and attitudes. While the values of the supporting group were enacted as policy in the Jordan Plan the opposing group perceived its values ignored by the same scheduling policy.

The opposing group made its concerns known to the School Board and demanded that its values be met by abolishing the Jordan Plan and reinstating the five-day week thus behaving as an interest group (Truman 1951). The political action of this group included the following: the creation of a public controversy over the Plan and a confrontation with the School Board in a show of power at election time; consolidation of its position by a door-to-door campaign and a telephone survey; offering the cessation of criticisms as a major inducement and the withdrawal of students as a constraint to the School Board; and keeping the controversy at the forefront of public attention through the news media. This process involved a good deal of conflict and hostility between the opposing group and the School Board and supporting group.

The actions of the School Board also seem to be consistent with the interest group model. The Board established rules to manage the conflict. It commissioned an outside evaluation team to study the Plan and make recommendations for the resolution of the controversy. While the study was in progress the School Board informed the opposing group that no action would be taken until the final report was tendered. Further, the Board requested the Superintendent's office and the school to stay away from the conflict because it was now outside the domain of the school and had become a political question.

However, although the explanations for the political interactions were predominantly those suggested by the interest group model, there were some elements of the characteristics selected from the elite-mass model in the political actions of the School Board. The members of the School Board appeared to share the same values as the supporting group of adults. The School Board committed as it was to a good Catholic education perceived the values of the supporting group and the Plan as desirable and wanted them retained. Accordingly, the School Board was on the side of the supporting group and looked with some disfavor on the opposing group. Jennings (1975:245) describes such a Board as having an "ideological" or elitist orientation and members are selective in which groups they heed and may be hostile towards groups with opposing views. Such a Board has a well defined notion of what is good for the public and which group is "right."

Techniques and Strategies to Generate Rational Inputs

The basis for the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by the experts to generate rational inputs for this stage of the policymaking process was the data from the interviews with members of the evaluation team, the working papers and the final evaluation report, and the insights of the researcher while a member of the evaluation team.

The evaluation team from the University of Alberta was comprised of three individuals who were accomplished and respected researchers in the field of educational administration in Alberta and Canada. Among the wide range of studies they conducted was a number of evaluative studies on policymaking and the functioning of School Boards. Members of the team taught courses on the change process in education and one also had experience as a school superintendent. The coordinator of the evaluation team has written widely on policymaking and policy analysis and presented several papers at professional conferences on these topics.

The evaluation team had access to the extensive library services and modern computer facilities at the University of Alberta. The members of the team had also developed a network of personal contacts in educational organizations over their years in research which gave access to data not available to less established researchers.

The evaluation team designed its approach to the study to maximize rationality. The data collection procedures were selected from the available procedures in educational research to give as comprehensive and accurate a picture of the controversy as possible. These procedures included the following: a study of relevant library materials; a content analysis of all available documents on the existing Jordan Plan; a questionnaire survey of the perceptions and preferences of parents, students, and former students; and in-depth interviews with key individuals. The treatment and interpretation of the data also reflected the evaluation team's careful consideration and application of accepted and credible research methods.

The evaluation team conducted an Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC) search of the literature on scheduling plans for schools. From this search the evaluation team extracted the major issues in scheduling for education, the different philosophies underlying various scheduling plans, and the advantages and disadvantages of different scheduling plans. These were seen as necessary background and input for the study.

The evaluation team made a careful content analysis of all the existing documents of the Plan. This supplied the original objectives of the Plan, its development and implementation, the implicit objectives that evolved, and the Plan's weaknesses and strengths. These findings were used as important inputs for identifying the issues in the controversy as well as for other parts of the study.

The evaluation team surveyed the perceptions and preferences of all the parents, students, and former students involved in the Plan. The items in the questionnaire were carefully selected to elicit the major concerns about the Plan according to the parent groups; important aspects of education in a high school, especially as they relate to scheduling; and the preferences of various groups with regards to scheduling at ABJ. The evaluation team increased the validity and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire by asking the advisory committee to critique items and suggest additions and deletions. The questionnaire data were analysed by computer at the University of Alberta. The findings from these data were major inputs into the study.

The evaluation team conducted a series of 76 interviews of School Board members, administrators, teachers, parents, students, and other key individuals. Here the evaluation team attempted to solicit the opinions of all the relevant groups and at the same time get the different points-of-view involved. The advisory committee was used to identify key people from both sides who had the most information to offer. Basically the evaluation team asked the same questions in the interview as they did in the questionnaire. However, in the social setting of the interview, team members were able to explore these questions in depth and to probe and collect other information in the possession of the interviewees. The interview data were used mainly to complement the data from the questionnaire.

The evaluation team studied the findings from all data sources using the techniques of triangulation and cross validation and then arrived at the issues surrounding the controversy over the Plan. Five issues were identified (Ingram et al. 1978:55-56): the changing situation in Sherwood Park; the identity of the school; the differing perspectives on the Plan; the scope of the school's responsibility; and the divisiveness within the community. These five issues and other relevant findings from this stage constituted the rational inputs for the policy development stage of the policymaking process.

Application of the Rational Characteristics

The techniques and strategies employed by the evaluation team to identify the issues surrounding the controversy over the Plan and supply rational inputs for the policy development stage of the policymaking process are best described using the characteristics selected from the optimal and incremental models. The optimal model argues for the use of appropriate available rational procedures with extrarational inputs where necessary in the inventive stages. The identification of issues is a fact finding and not an inventive phase of policymaking and warrants mainly rational procedures.

The evaluation team employed the most appropriate procedures of those available for this type of study -- questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis. Use was also made of up-to-date computer equipment and procedures to analyse data. Considerable knowledge and information inputs were involved in the process as members of the evaluation team drew heavily from their many years of experience as evaluators, professors, and policymakers; and the accumulated knowledge of scholars and researchers in education from the extensive library facilities of the University of Alberta.

There is also some evidence of elements of the incremental model in the techniques and strategies the evaluation team used in this stage. The evaluation team was working under the constraints of a limited budget, a short time-line (75 days), and a sensitive political situation. However, the economic constraint is accounted for by the optimal model since it includes the economically rational model.

Overall, considering the constraints of time and the political situation and the weight of the rational procedures employed by the evaluation team, the inputs for the policy development stage could be deemed optimal.

Rational-Political Interactions

The description and analysis of the rational-political interactions of the identification of issues stage of the policymaking process were based on the interviews with members of the evaluation team, members of the School Board, the Superintendent, and the Principal of ABJ; and the insights of the researcher while part of the evaluation team. These interactions involved the members of the evaluation team on one side and members of the School Board, the Superintendent, and representatives of the various stakeholder groups on the other.

The Evaluation Team. The interviews with members of the evaluation team suggest that they had two basic orientations in conducting research: a strong commitment to assist the client system in resolving the problem at hand; and a desire to correct any deficiencies in the client system that seem to hinder it in dealing effectively with emergent problems. These two orientations seem to correspond with the strategic and clinical orientations of the rational-political characteristics of the rational-political model. The interactions between the evaluation team and the key stakeholder groups are now discussed to indicate the extent to which these two orientations were present in this stage of the policymaking process.

The evaluation team established an advisory committee to facilitate its interactions with the client system. This committee represented the most important stakeholder groups involved in the Jordan Plan controversy -- one parent from each of the opposing and supporting groups of adults; two Board members; the Principal, Assistant Principal, one teacher, and one student from ABJ; and the Superintendent.

Elements of both the strategic and clinical orientations were apparent in the approach taken by the evaluation team in its interactions with the client system. The strategic orientation was evident in several ways. The evaluation team realized that it was dealing with a political problem and decided that the best process to arrive at a solution was the involvement of key stakeholders in a problem-solving setting. Thus the advisory committee was cast into a problem-solving forum where members could air their views and vent their feelings. This strategy allowed the evaluation team to understand the frames of references and positions of the various stakeholder groups and assist it to devise further strategies to influence and guide the problem-solving process. The evaluation team viewed members of the various stakeholder groups as rational and felt it could motivate them to act rationally. As the problem-solving process unfolded it was the hope of the evaluation team to get members committed to the study and the development of an acceptable solution.

Some of the reasons advanced by the evaluation team in its diagnosis suggested an attempt to externalize the source of the problem from the client system which is an important mark of the strategic orientation. These reasons suggest that the problem was partly due to the dramatic changes in the community, the changes in societal values and expectations for education, and the difficulty in initiating change in education.

From time to time the evaluation team presented the data generated in studying the controversy and their interpretations to the advisory committee in a form that is easily understood. These data and interpretations were discussed at length and in several cases modified. In a few cases aspects of the data and interpretations were strongly disputed by the representative of the opposing group. Largely, the evaluation team employed the strategic orientation in dealing with the advisory committee since the relationship was one "involving mutual assessment, mutual influence, and mixed motives, that is, elements of both conflict and collaboration" (Archibald, 1970:18).

Some aspects of the clinical orientation were present also in the interactions between the evaluation team and the advisory committee. An important element of this orientation was seen in the evaluation team's attempt to win the trust of all stakeholder groups, especially the opposing group of adults. The opposing group viewed the evaluation with distrust and suspicion. It viewed the evaluation team as an agent of the School Board which was perceived as supportive of the Plan. Since the opposing group was important to the solution of the controversy the evaluation team tried several strategies to win its trust and support. The evaluation team took the stance of an impartial body open to suggestions and criticisms from all sides. It sought advice on items for the questionnaires and suggestions for interviewees that would give all points-of-view in the controversy. Further, the evaluation team tried to convince all stakeholder groups that its findings and recommendations would be based on objective data and that it had not come in with preconceived ideas and solutions and was merely going through a legitimation process.

Other elements of the clinical orientation were seen in two of the reasons the evaluation team supplied in the diagnosis of the problem and in the way the problem was bounded. The evaluation team partially internalized the source of the problem in the client system by suggesting that it failed to monitor the changes in the community and adjust its operations, and further, that it was unable to work collaboratively with adult groups. The evaluation team did not bound the problem to a short time span -- merely to the solution of the controversy with a modification of the scheduling policy. The evaluation team saw its role as solving the immediate problem of the Jordan Plan and to prepare the client system to cope with similar problems in the future. There was some indication that the evaluation team was thinking of helping the client system to establish mechanisms to rectify these shortcomings -- a strong commitment of the clinical orientation is to effect lasting positive changes in the client system.

The School Board. The School Board genuinely did not know how to resolve the controversy over the Plan. The problem had developed to a stage where the School Board had to do something to satisfy the demands of the opposing group. The School Board was pushed to a position where it had to act -- it had promised to take action when confronted by the opposing group at election time and the opposing group had continued its efforts to abolish the Plan. It was definitely not in the School Board's political interest to capitulate to the demands of the opposing group. The School Board commissioned the evaluation to assist in the solution of the problem and, at the same time, to ease some of the pressure it was experiencing. This evaluation, while a legitimate part of the decisionmaking process, effectively postponed a final decision to a later date when the political climate might be more favorable. Interestingly, the School Board kept this political motive behind more acceptable objectives for the evaluation. For example, the evaluation was discussed in terms of finding out how well graduates from ABJ were progressing, getting an unbiased view on how the Plan was operating, and finding out the extent to which the objectives of the Plan were being met.

With the dual aim of identifying an acceptable solution to the controversy and buying time for later political action the School Board allowed the evaluation team to take the initiative in their interactions. The School Board realized that it was in the Board's interest to let the evaluation team conduct the study without interference for it to be perceived as an impartial and legitimate activity. Apparently the Board was not too concerned with which of the three orientations -- the academic, the clinical, and the strategic -- the evaluation team employed because any approach would have bought time for a later decision. However, the Board was apparently pleased with the evaluation team's approach that involved the key stakeholders in a problem-solving setting as this process had the potential to develop an acceptable solution. The School Board facilitated the work of the evaluation team by requesting the Superintendent's office and ABJ staff to give necessary assistance.

THE POLICY DEVELOPMENT STAGE

Political Interactions

The political interactions for this stage of the policymaking process involved the elected School Board, the opposing and supporting groups of adults, the Superintendent's office and the school. Data for the description and analysis of these political interactions were supplied from the researcher's interviews with the evaluation team members, the School Board members, the Superintendent, and the Principal of ABJ; and the various documents. These data suggest that the School Board was the group of politicians with the primary responsibility for this stage of the policymaking process.

The Opposing Group. This group of adults made its position clear to the School Board and the evaluation team that it did not want the Jordan Plan and strongly advocated the five-day school week schedule. Members of the opposing group continued to complain to the School Board about the Plan and to use the press to discuss its position. However, these efforts were not as intense as the period prior to the commissioning of the evaluation team. The opposing group insured also that its position was argued forcibly in the advisory committee to the evaluation team for it replaced one representative who was deemed to be not as vocal as the opposing group would have wished. This group was important in establishing the boundaries for political feasibility of alternative policies to be developed by the evaluation team.

The Supporting Group. This group did not advocate any particular policy alternative but would have liked apparently to retain the Jordan Plan. It remained quietly supportive of the School Board and indicated that it would accept any policy alternative the Board chose from those presented by the evaluation team.

The School Board. The School Board did not get involved actively in the development of policy alternatives. It perceived this to be the proper role of the evaluation team and felt it would be politically unwise to appear to be unduly involved in the process.

The Superintendent's Office. Like the School Board the Superintendent's office allowed the evaluation team to develop policy alternatives. It did not advocate any particular policy alternative and wanted the evaluation team to be perceived as impartial in its deliberations.

The School. The school did not advocate either the retention or abolition of the Plan. It stayed away from the development of alternatives hoping this would hasten the resolution of the controversy, free it from the political struggle, and allow the task of educating students to go on smoothly.

Application of the Political Characteristics.

The political interactions of the policy development stage of the policymaking process are best explained by the political characteristics of the rational-political model drawn from the interest groups model. The opposing group advocated strongly the termination of the Jordan Plan and a return to the traditional five-day school week schedule. The School Board had established the rules and an impartial body to study and assist in the resolution of the controversy in the form of the evaluation team and required all parties to honor this arrangement. The School Board itself did not try to influence the policy development process nor did it permit the Superintendent's office or the school to do so.

Techniques and Strategies to Generate Rational Inputs.

Data for the description and analysis of the techniques and strategies the evaluation team used to develop policy alternatives were supplied from interviews with members of the evaluation team, working drafts and the final evaluation report, and the insights of the researcher while apart of the process. The evaluation team approached the task of generating and testing policy alternatives rationally by using a problem-solving framework. This framework involved the use of the findings and issues from the study to develop guidelines for generating and testing policy alternatives. It is illustrated in Figure XIII.

The evaluation team noted that the satisfactory resolution of the controversy over the Plan involved a complete and thorough consideration of all aspects of school, student, parent, church and community roles and relationships in regard to education of the young. However, because its terms of reference were tied to scheduling concerns, the evaluation team limited its search for alternative

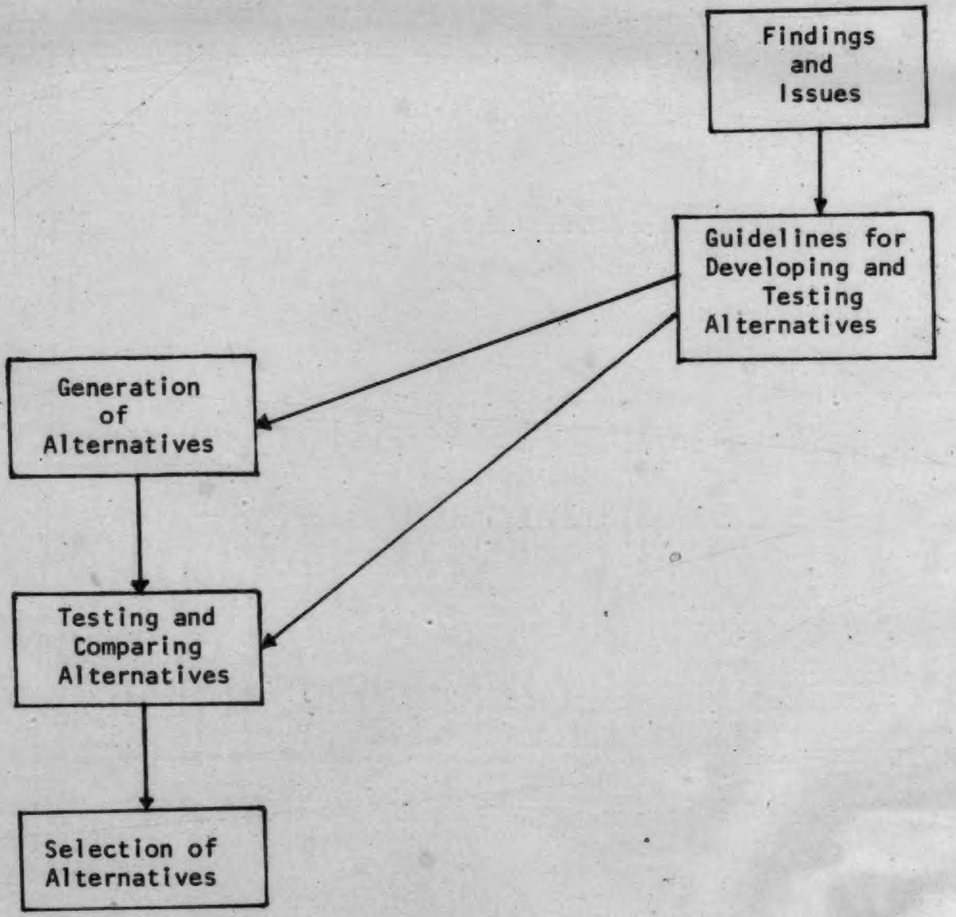

Findings and Issues
Guidelines for Developing and Testing Alternatives
Generation of Alternatives
Testing and Comparing Alternatives
Selection of Alternatives

Figure XIII: A Framework for Generating and Selecting from among Alternative Scheduling Plans. (Ingram et al., 1978:8)

policies primarily to scheduling in schools. Consideration was given specifically to the following: (1) the purpose for which time is scheduled; (2) the expectations held for students and teachers regarding the use of scheduled time; and (3) structured relationships between students and teachers with regards to scheduled time.

Within its terms of reference and using the findings and issues from the study of the controversy as inputs the evaluation team developed the following list of guidelines to generate and test alternative scheduling plans (Ingram et al., 1978:68-69):

1. The scheduling system must have the potential for exceeding the minimum requirements established by the province.
2. The scheduling system must be educationally sound (e.g. facilitates learning, growth in maturity, teacher-student relationships, and self direction).
3. The scheduling system must be compatible with the educational needs and learning styles of the various types of students served by the school.
4. The scheduling system must be compatible with the educational philosophy of the system.
5. The scheduling system should enhance the development and maintenance of a school identity.
6. The scheduling system should facilitate the planning, preparation, and assessment tasks of teachers.
7. The scheduling system should be compatible with the expectations and life styles represented in the community.
8. The scheduling system must be financially viable for the system.
9. The scheduling system must be administratively workable.

The evaluation team discovered that the nine guidelines developed from the study findings and issues were insufficient to generate and test alternative scheduling plans. Some of the major guidelines were very complex since they involved differing values, attitudes, and preferences of students and adults. In the ABJ context these value preferences were at the surface because of the political controversy and the evaluation team wanted all groups to perceive that they were considered. The evaluation team decided that it had to develop a new educational concept to address these differing value preferences and, at the same time, insuring educational soundness in the alternative scheduling plans. The evaluation team had to draw heavily on its members' extensive experience and knowledge of teaching, learning and motivation in education to develop four additional criteria to buttress the nine guidelines. The four criteria centered on the concept of optional time (Ingram et al. 1978:71-73):

1. A sound educational program that faciliates learning, growth in maturity, teacher-student relationships, and self-direction should provide blocks of optional time. This provision makes it easier to accommodate the various needs and learning styles of students.
2. A student's education is enhanced, especially with respect to development of self-direction, when he or she is expected to plan and be responsible for learning activities during scheduled optional time blocks.
3. In order for students to make wise decisions about the use of optional time, a range of opportunities must be provided from which they could choose. Such opportunities may include

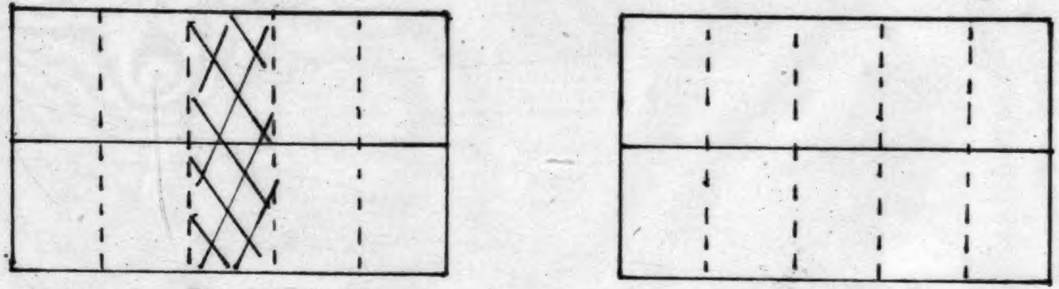
extra-curricular programs, project courses, credit options, individual study, and consultations with students.

4. In order to facilitate learning and growth in maturity through the use of optional time, teacher consultants should be assigned to each student.

Using the nine guidelines and four accompanying criteria the evaluation team generated six scheduling plans which it considered most relevant for ABJ. These are presented diagramatically in Figure XIV.

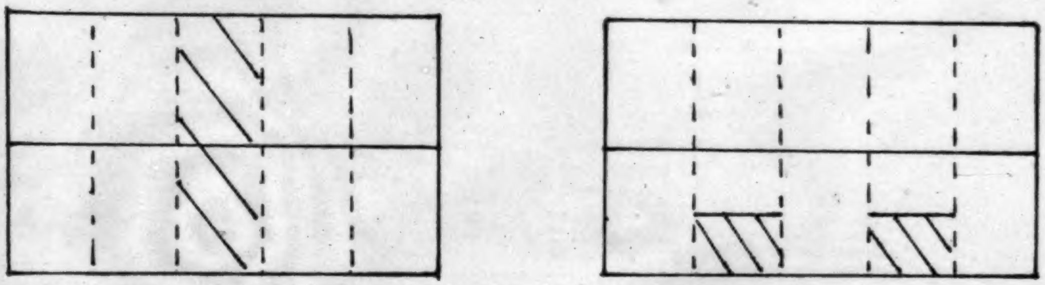
The varying components of the six alternative scheduling plans included the following: (1) the number, length, and placement of prescribed, unprescribed, and optional time blocks; (2) the expectations held for students; and (3) the relationships between teachers and students. One of the six alternatives considered by the evaluation team was the Jordan Plan under controversy. Two others were modifications of the Jordan Plan. Another alternative was the traditional five-day week. Two others represented modifications of the five-day week.

The evaluation team applied the nine guidelines and the four accompanying criteria to select the best of the six alternative scheduling plans generated. The extent to which any scheduling plan was rated positively on these nine guidelines and four criteria indicated its "goodness" both in resolving the issues identified in the study of the controversy and insuring a sound education for the children in the school system. After this procedure the evaluation team ranked the six alternative scheduling plans as follows from most suitable to least suitable:



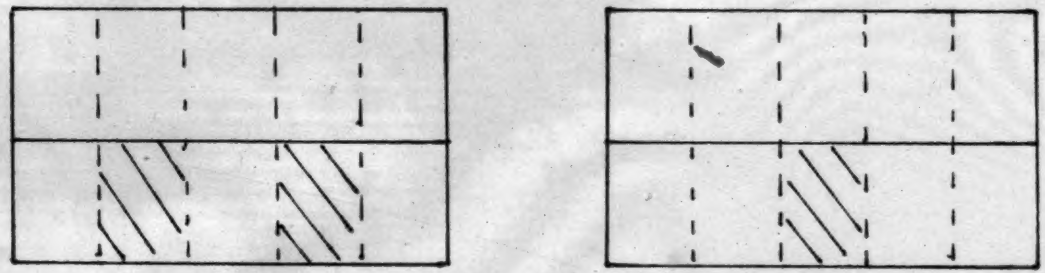
I. The Jordan Plan

IV. The Five Day Week



II. Modified Jordan Plan I

V. Modified Five Day Week I



III. Modified Jordan Plan II

VI. Modified Five Day Week II

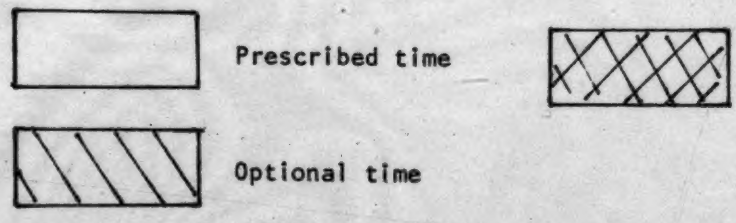

Prescribed time
Unprescribed time
Optional time

Figure XIV: ALTERNATIVE SCHEDULING PLANS

1. Modified Jordan Plan II
2. Modified Five-Day Week II
3. Modified Jordan Plan I
4. The Jordan Plan
5. Modified Five-Day Week I
6. The Five-Day Week

Application of the Rational Characteristics.

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models seemed to guide the approach of the evaluation team in the policy development stage of the policymaking process. The evaluation team appeared to follow the optimal model by using a rational problem-solving procedure that included an extrarational component and major knowledge inputs. The rational procedure was in the form of a framework with nine guidelines developed from the findings and issues from a study of the controversy over the Plan to generate and test alternative scheduling plans. In the inventive phase of policy development the evaluation team was creative -- used extrarational processes -- to develop a new educational concept labeled optimal time. This was done in order to weave the study findings and issues and the differing value preferences in the ABJ context into feasible alternative scheduling plans capable of resolving the controversy without sacrificing educational soundness. Significant knowledge inputs were involved also in this process since the evaluation team had to draw heavily on its experience and knowledge of teaching, learning and motivation in education.

While the evaluation team established a rational procedure according to the optimal model to generate and test alternative scheduling plans it apparently used the incremental model to limit the cut-off horizons in its search for these alternatives. The boundaries for the range of policy alternatives were extended only to the preferences of the opposing and supporting groups of adults -- between the traditional five-day week at one extreme and the Jordan Plan at the other extreme. As this entire policymaking process was initiated in response to a political controversy the evaluation team realized that political expediency was of paramount importance in considering alternatives that had a reasonable chance of being accepted. As a result, the evaluation team identified two alternatives as most preferred that tended to be compromise positions between the opposing and supporting groups and the two extreme alternatives -- the five-day week and the Jordan Plan -- as the least preferred.

Overall, the policy development stage was guided about equally by the optimal and incremental models of policymaking. The optimal model guided policy development by providing the procedural criteria to develop and test alternative scheduling plans. The incremental model contributed to the process by establishing the cut-off horizons for the search of policy alternatives and identifying those that were most likely to be acceptable in the political context of ABJ.

Rational-Political Interactions

The description and analysis of the rational-political interactions in the policy development stage of the policymaking process were based on the interviews with members of the evaluation team, members of the School Board, the Superintendent, and the Principal of ABJ; and the insights of the researcher while part of the evaluation team. These interactions were between members of the evaluation team on the one hand, and representatives of the School Board, the opposing and supporting groups of adults, the Superintendent's office, and the school on the advisory committee to the evaluation on the other hand.

The Evaluation Team. In the policy development stage the evaluation team continued to use the strategic and clinical orientations as in the previous stage of identification of issues. The evaluation team addressed itself to two main tasks in these rational-political interactions: to help the School Board resolve the controversy over the Jordan Plan; and to assist the school system in rectifying two deficiencies that seemed to hinder it in dealing with emergent problems within the community. These two deficiencies hinged on the failure of the school to monitor changes in the community and to adjust operations accordingly and the apparent inability to work collaboratively with adult groups. The first task of the evaluation team necessitated the use of the strategic orientation while the second task required the use of the clinical orientation.

The evaluation team employed the strategic orientation to prepare representatives of all stakeholder groups for a reasonable compromise of positions in a new policy in the problem-solving setting of the advisory committee. In reporting the findings and interpretations of the data from the study the evaluation team emphasized that while the Jordan Plan had many strengths it also had several weaknesses which had to be corrected. Further, the team pointed out that there were several points-of-view on education in the community and all of these had to be considered. Since there was only one Catholic high school in Sherwood Park the decision could not be firmly for or against the Jordan Plan but one that would reasonably serve the different preferences of parents. In keeping with this approach the evaluation team highlighted the extreme positions involved by placing the Jordan Plan and the five-day week at the ends of the continuum of six alternatives. In this way the evaluation team tried to demonstrate that a workable solution was somewhere in between these positions.

Evidence of the clinical orientation was seen in the efforts of the evaluation team to win the trust of all stakeholder groups in the controversy and the strategy to correct the two deficiencies identified in the school system that seemed to hinder it from handling effectively emergent problems. The evaluation team tried very hard to gain the support of the opposing group in its presentations to the advisory committee by emphasizing its case throughout as that of a significant minority. In fact this purpose was so noticeable that it annoyed some individuals who were supportive of the Plan. The evaluation team also tried to placate all sides by congratulating the School Board, the Superintendent's office, the school, and parents for their inventiveness and courage in introducing the Plan and by commending the parents and students who became vocal critics concluding that a school system required both of these outlooks to ensure a vibrant and relevant education.

The evaluation team used the clinical orientation to create an awareness in the representatives of the School Board, the Superintendent's office, and the school of the two deficiencies in the school system that may have contributed to the controversy over the Plan. The motive behind this strategy was to explore possible ways of correcting these deficiencies and make a lasting change on the school system. In its presentations to the advisory committee the evaluation team underlined the importance of the scheduling plan to reflect the value preferences for education of the various groups of adults and students and implied the need for the school system to monitor continuously the changes in the community and to adjust its operations accordingly. Further, by making representatives of the School Board, the Superintendent's office, and the school work together with representatives of adult groups in the problem-solving setting of the advisory committee the evaluation team hoped to alert the school system to the value and potential of working with adult groups to solve collaboratively school/community problems. Apparently the evaluation team expected that these experiences in the advisory committee would motivate the school system to develop and establish mechanisms to monitor continuously changes in the community and to encourage the involvement of adult groups in appropriate areas of school affairs.

The School Board. The political motives of the School Board in its rational-political interactions with the evaluation team were apparently to find a solution to the controversy that would keep its political credibility intact and to buy enough time to implement this solution at a time when the political climate was more favorable. The School Board hoped that the evaluation team would satisfy both of its motives by recommending feasible alternative scheduling plans after a process that involved enough time for the political climate to change.

With these motives in mind the School Board was content to allow the evaluation team to take the initiative in their rational-political interactions. Apparently the School Board felt that the process initiated by the evaluation team was effective in resolving the controversy and also boosted the Board's credibility. First, the public would see that the elected School Board was acting responsibly in the controversy by allowing the evaluation team to conduct its work in an impartial manner. Second, since the evaluation team employed a strategic orientation in the advisory committee and involved representatives from all stakeholder groups to resolve the problem this would enable the School Board to be perceived as fair and representative of all points-of-view in the community. The School Board did not try to influence the evaluation team in its task of developing alternative scheduling plans although it participated willingly in the deliberations of the advisory committee.

THE POLICY CHOICE STAGE

Political Interactions

The political interactions of this stage of the policymaking process involved mainly the School Board, the Superintendent's office, and the school. Data for the description and analysis of these political interactions were supplied by the interviews and documentary materials on these groups. The School Board appeared to be the political group with primary responsibility for this stage of the policymaking process.

The School Board. The School Board accepted the two recommendations from the evaluation team with regards the final choice of the scheduling policy for ABJ. These recommendations required the School Board to incorporate the concept of optional time in the new policy and to choose either the Jordan Plan II or the Five-Day Week II as the final policy.

The School Board invited inputs from the school and the Superintendent's office on the two policy alternatives recommended by the evaluation team. It did not entertain a suggestion from the school for the scheduling policy at the ABJ to either remain the Jordan Plan or revert to the traditional five-day week. The School Board pointed out that the controversy was in the political domain and it reserved the right to decide on alternatives that were politically feasible.

The School Board sought advice from the Superintendent's office on the financial feasibility and practicability of the two recommended policy alternatives. It also received assurance from this office that assistance would be given to the school in implementing the new policy in its initial year.

The School Board tried to take an impartial stance by not acceding to the preferences of either the opposing or supporting group in its choice of policy. It unanimously chose the Five-Day Week II as the new scheduling policy for ABJ because this represented the best compromise of all sides and was most likely to be accepted. Further, this scheduling policy was preferred by the Superintendent's office and the school over the other alternative -- the Jordan Plan II -- recommended by the evaluation team.

The School. When the School Board invited inputs from the school on the two scheduling plans judged most suitable for ABJ by the evaluation team, the staff expressed a desire for neither of these alternatives and wanted the Board to either keep the Plan as it was or to terminate it completely and revert to the traditional five-day week. The Board pointed out that the Plan as existed or the five-day week were not feasible alternatives and the school must give its preference for either the Jordan Plan II or the Five-Day Week II.

The school felt that "if that's all it had to go with" it would vote for the alternative that would be less troublesome to implement and assist in ending the controversy. As a result, the school opted for the Five-Day Week II over the Jordan Plan II because it required one 200-minute block of optional time on one day instead of 200-minute blocks of optional time on two days. This plan was perceived to be easier to administer and would demand less from teachers in their additional role as consultants to students.

The Superintendent's Office. This office seemed to agree with the School Board that one of the two plans recommended by the evaluation team would be best to resolve the controversy. The Superintendent's office gave the School Board professional advice on these two scheduling plans especially their financially feasibility and practicability. It was also responsible for discussing the two plans with the school and getting inputs from that source. This office assured the School Board that it would assist the school in implementing the main features of the new plan -- the concept of optional time, the teacher-consultant role, and the student contracts -- during the initial year.

Application of the Political Characteristics.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group and institutional models seem to best describe the political interactions of the policy choice stage of the policymaking process. The School Board appeared to have two main considerations in deciding the final scheduling policy for ABJ. First, the Board had to satisfy the demands of the opposing group of adults for a return to the five-day week without sacrificing the value preferences of the supporting group represented by the Jordan Plan. To balance the competing interests of these two groups of adults the School Board decided to enact a compromise, the Five-Day Week II, as the new scheduling policy much in keeping with the interest group model (Dye 1975:21). Second, the Board had to gain the commitment of the school and the Superintendent's office to the new policy as they would be responsible for its implementation. To gain this commitment the Board invited inputs on the final choice of policy but limited these inputs to the two alternatives recommended by the evaluation team. This attempt by the School Board to gain the commitment of the implementors to the new policy is a further indication of the interest group model in operation (Downey 1977: 25).

Elements of the institutional model seemed also to be emerging in the policy choice stage in the political interactions of the school in response to the School Board's request for inputs to the final policy choice. The school showed initially a choice for neither of the two alternatives recommended by the evaluation team and endorsed by the School Board but wished a decision for or against the entire Jordan Plan. The Board pointed out that from its perspective only the Jordan Plan II and the Five-Day Week II were feasible alternatives. This apparent reluctance on the part of the school to accept wholeheartedly the School Board's choice of policy appeared to have important implications for the implementation stage of the policymaking process. In terms of the institutional model (Dye 1975:21) the school did not authoritatively determine the final policy, the School Board did this; however, the school was expected to implement and enforce the new scheduling policy. The school consisted of structured patterns of behavior that could facilitate or obstruct the outcomes of the new policy. It appears that the level of commitment of the school towards the policy chosen by the Board would be demonstrated in the manner the new scheduling plan was implemented.

Techniques and Strategies to Generate Rational Inputs.

The description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by the experts to generate rational inputs for this stage of the policymaking process were based on data from the interviews with members of the evaluation team, the working papers and final evaluation report, and the insights of the researcher while a member of the evaluation team.

The evaluation team presented the School Board with six alternative plans from which to choose including the Jordan Plan and the Five-Day Week. These six alternatives were rated from most suitable to least suitable according to the guidelines and criteria developed for the ABJ context. The two most suitable scheduling plans recommended were the Jordan Plan II and the Five-Day Week II. In discussing the six alternatives the evaluation team placed them along a continuum with the Jordan Plan and the Five-Day Week occupying the extremes. The evaluation team's strategy was to highlight the polarities of the controversy and to demonstrate that neither of these two alternatives would be suitable. The evaluation team wanted to emphasize that the only workable alternatives especially for political feasibility lay somewhere between these two extreme alternatives. At the same time,the evaluation team tried to show that the two plans it was recommending captured the strengths of the previous Jordan Plan and eliminated its perceived weaknesses. This was done by developing and outlining the expectations for all participants in their use of optional time under the scheduling plans.

The evaluation team made two specific recommendations to the School Board with regards the choice of a new scheduling plan for ABJ (Ingram et al. 1978:96-97):

Recommendation #1

It is recommended that the concept of optional time be approved, in principle, by the Board as a guide in considering, developing and implementing a scheduling system for Archbishop Jordan High School.

Recommendation #2

It is recommended that the Board of Trustees select either Modified Jordan Plan II or Modified Five-Day Week II as the basic plan from which to develop a specific scheduling system for Archbishop Jordan High School.

Application of the Rational Characteristics.

As in the policy development stage the rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models seemed to guide the techniques and strategies of the evaluation team in generating inputs for the policy choice stage of the policymaking process. The optimal model is seen in the rational procedures the evaluation team followed to arrive at the two recommendations to aid the School Board in choosing the final policy. The evaluation team recommended that the School Board choose either the Jordan Plan II or the Five-Day Week II since these resulted after testing the six policy alternatives developed against the guidelines and criteria gained from studying the controversy over the Plan and other relevant educational information. The evaluation team recommended also that the School Board incorporate optional time into the new scheduling policy, a concept which resulted from the creativity possible in the inventive stages of the optimal model. However, as the evaluation team was in the midst of a political controversy that made political feasibility a major consideration it appeared to use the incremental model in conjunction with the optional model to guide its activities in selecting the two scheduling plans for the School Board.

Rational-Political Interactions

The description and analysis of the rational-political interactions in the policy choice stage of the policymaking process were based on the interviews with members of the evaluation team, members of the School Board, the Superintendent, and the Principal of ABJ; and the insights of the researcher while part of the evaluation team. These interactions existed between members of the evaluation team and the School Board, the opposing and supporting groups of adults, the Superintendent's office and the school.

The Evaluation Team. As in the two previous stages in the policymaking process the rational-political interactions of the evaluation team in the policy choice stage were characteristic of the strategic and clinical orientations to the role of the expert. The evaluation team continued to view its task as two-fold -- to assist the School Board in resolving the controversy over the Plan (a strategic task) and to assist the school system in developing the competencies to deal with emergent problems (a clinical task). In its rational-political interactions in the policy development stage the evaluation team deliberately tried to cultivate a climate among the representatives of the various stakeholder groups on the advisory committee for the acceptance of a reasonable compromise as the new scheduling policy for ABJ. This compromise was represented in the two scheduling plans the evaluation team recommended to the School Board.

Further, the evaluation team assisted in the resolution of the controversy by taking "some of the heat off" the School Board on the final choice of policy by presenting its findings and recommendations to a well attended meeting of ratepayers in Sherwood Park. At this meeting the evaluation team not only defended its findings and recommendations, but more importantly, responded to queries and countered criticisms which might have been directed at the School Board. Apparently, the evaluation team reasoned that as the outside panel of experts its word would be more credible and have more weight than the School Board which was perceived by the opposing group to be partial to the Jordan Plan.

In focusing on the task of making lasting changes in the school system with respect to competencies to deal with emergent problems the evaluation team employed the clinical orientation. The evaluation team prepared its recommendations to the School Board by providing only the general framework for the two preferred scheduling policies. This framework centered around the concept of optional time and the expectations of students and teachers for this time. The specifics of the chosen policy had to be worked out by the school and the Superintendent's office with significant inputs from adult representatives in the community. Thus, it appeared that the strategy of the evaluation team was, among other things, to afford the school system an opportunity to obtain practice in developing a response to the changing community while working closely with adult groups.

The School Board. The rational-political interactions of the School Board in the policy choice stage seemed to be governed by the desire to retain its political credibility and support from the ratepayers in Sherwood Park and to affirm its policymaking role in the school system. In the two earlier stages it was noted that the School Board was apparently trying to buy time to make a decision when the political climate was more favorable. By the policy choice stage the controversy over the Plan was somewhat defused because of the passage of time and the activities and involvement of the evaluation team. The political climate appeared to favor a compromise of political positions. The School Board elected to choose a policy that was most likely to satisfy the majority of the ratepayers because it made important concessions to appease the opposing group but still retained enough of the Jordan Plan not to alienate the supporting group. The School Board was able to justify its choice on rational grounds as it was based on the recommendations of the evaluation team after a comprehensive study.

In the two earlier stages of the policymaking process the School Board seemed to allow the evaluation team to take the initiative in their rational-political interactions. However, in the policy choice stage the Board took the initiative by using the evaluation team and its rational inputs to satisfy its political ends. Two important instances of this initiative were evident. First, the School Board requested the evaluation team to present its findings and recommendations and answer queries and criticisms at a large public meeting of ratepayers. This took "some of the heat off" the School Board and reinforced the rational basis on which it made the final policy choice. Second, the School Board affirmed its policymaking role in the school system by refusing the school's request to either retain the Jordan Plan or revert to the five-day week. The Board did this by citing the political nature of the issue and the fact that the evaluation team had made its recommendations after a thorough examination of the controversy.

THE POLICY IMPLEMENTATION STAGE

The description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by the evaluation team to generate rational inputs for policy implementation are discussed before political interactions because the evaluation team made its exit at the policy choice stage of the process. This arrangement makes the discussion of the political interactions in the policy implementation stage easier since the implementors were responding to the recommendations of the evaluation team.

Techniques and Strategies to Generate Rational Inputs.

The description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by the evaluation team to generate rational inputs for this stage of the policymaking process were based on the interviews with members of the evaluation team, the working papers and final evaluation report, and the insights of the researcher while a member of the evaluation team.

The evaluation team developed a set of three recommendations to assist the school system in implementing the new scheduling policy at ABJ. These three recommendations centered on a time frame for phasing in the new scheduling policy, an evaluation strategy, and a mechanism to foster good school/community relationships (Ingram et al. 1978:97-99).

The recommendations on a time frame for implementation required the following: the new scheduling policy be implemented in September, 1978; a start be made on a student contract and a teacher consultancy system possibly with a limited program for grades 9 and 10 initially; there be limited provision of learning opportunities during optional time blocks with a movement in the direction of project courses and credit options; and a development team of administrators, teachers, students and parents be established to work out details of the policy for full implementation by September, 1979.

The recommendation on an evaluation strategy required the development of a plan prior to September, 1978 to evaluate periodically the new scheduling policy. This evaluation plan should include the aspects of the program to be evaluated, the types of data to be collected, the sources of the data, the time of data collection, the management of the evaluation, and how the evaluation results would be used to modify the scheduling plan.

Finally, the recommendation on a mechanism to foster good school/community relationships required the following: an interim school/community relations committee be established as early as possible; this interim committee work out the operational details of a continuing school/community relations committee, for example, its composition, term of office, selection of members, and terms of reference during the 1978/79 school year; and the committee be involved in considering aspects of the Plan such as student contracts, the provision of optional time learning opportunities, reporting to the community, and the evaluation of the Plan.

Application of the Rational Characteristics

The evaluation team was guided apparently by the rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal model in developing the recommendations for the implementation of the new scheduling policy at ABJ. As in the previous stages of the policymaking process the evaluation team employed rational procedures and used the findings of its study of the controversy, the special characteristics of the new policy, and its knowledge and experience of the change process as major inputs in this stage. An examination of the three recommendations reflects the level of rationality and the strength of the knowledge and experiental base involved.

In recommending a process for implementation over a period of time the evaluation team recognized the magnitude of the task and anticipated potential barriers in implementing the new policy. Much time and flexibility were required to develop and implement the student learning contracts, the teacher consultant role, alternative learning opportunities for optional time blocks and class schedules. As a member of the evaluation team put it, the initial year of implementation was regarded as a pilot year "to iron out the bugs" and allow members of ABJ staff to become committed to the new policy by giving it "their own stamp" within the general framework provided.

The evaluation strategy recommended by the evaluation team was seen as an important component of the implementation process of the new scheduling policy at ABJ. This recommendation underscores the evaluation team's knowledge of implementation and how an appropriate evaluation strategy could strengthen the process. The evaluation was recommended to be primarily formative and the basis for necessary changes as implementation progressed. This was the reason that the evaluation team stressed the importance of prior planning of the evaluation strategy.

The recommendation to establish a school/community relations committee further reflects the knowledge of the evaluation team of the change process and mechanisms to facilitate school/community relations. This committee was seen as bridging a vital gap between ABJ and the community while assisting in monitoring implementation.

Overall, although the evaluation team based its recommendations on rationality and knowledge it did not lose sight of the political nature of the policymaking situation. The proposed involvement of representatives of parent groups and ABJ staff in a developmental process during a trial year for the scheduling plan was meant to make acceptance easier as the door to major modifications was still open.

Political Interactions

The political interactions in this stage of the policymaking process involved mainly the School Board, the school, and the

Superintendent's office. Data for the description and analysis of these political interactions were supplied by interview and documentary materials related to the implementation of the new scheduling policy. The school appeared to be the political group with primary responsibility for this stage of the policymaking process.

The School Board. The Board passed a motion with the following guidelines for the implementation of the new scheduling policy at ABJ (School Board Minutes, June 12, 1978):

1. the basic schedule contained in the plan selected be implemented in September 1978
2. a start be made on a student contract and a teacher consultancy system with parental involvement in same
3. a development team consisting of administrators, teachers, students, parents and a trustee be established to work out details of the system for full implementation by September 1978
4. the Superintendent and Administration charge the development team consisting of administrators, teachers, students and parents and a trustee with the following responsibilities:
    a. To provide a clearer picture of what is going to be offered during optional time periods.
    b. To set some means of student participation during the option period.
    c. To set up contractual mechanisms in order to solidify student commitment and monitor student progress.
5. that the development team evaluate twice yearly and communicate their findings to the Board
6. additional cost for the plan be submitted to the Board for approval
7. a method for continuing parental involvement be instituted

8. clear set of educational objectives be devised for optional time

9. ongoing method of information dispensing be devised to inform parents and community.

From this list of guidelines it appeared that the School Board endorsed generally the recommendations of the evaluation team on the implementation of the new scheduling policy. However, the guidelines did not capture completely the intent of the evaluation team's recommendations on evaluation and school/community relations. The recommendation on an evaluation strategy required that a detailed plan for evaluation including processes and purposes be worked out prior to implementation. The School Board's guideline on evaluation wanted the development team to evaluate the Plan bi-annually and to report the findings to the Board. While the evaluation team seemed to regard the purpose of its recommended evaluation strategy as primarily formative and an integral part of implementation the School Board apparently saw evaluation more in terms of a summative assessment of the Plan.

On school/community relations the evaluation team underlined the importance of two-way communication between the school and the community. It pointed out that a lack of proper communication had probably been one of the major contributory factors of the Jordan Plan controversy. The evaluation team recommended the establishment of an interim school/community relations committee in the initial year of implementation to work out details of a permanent committee which would eventually oversee the Plan. The School Board's guideline on school/community relations required that an "ongoing method of information dispensing be devised to inform parents and community." This guideline seemed to suggest a one-way communication from school to community while the evaluation team was apparently recommending a mechanism to facilitate mutual feedback between school and community.

Overall, the School Board seemed to rely on the school and the Superintendent's office to use their discretion in implementing the new policy within the limits of the nine guidelines passed in its motion. As the School Board's nine guidelines were stated in general terms and required the development of many mechanisms and processes there was a good deal of flexibility for individuals in the school and the Superintendent's office during implementation.

The School. A development team was established to work out details for implementation of the new scheduling policy at ABJ. This development team was made up of the following: the Principal, one teacher, the Jordan Plan coordinator, and one student from ABJ; one representative each from the School Board and the Superintendent's office; two parents; and a student from a feeder school. The Principal of ABJ was the chairman of the development team. This team met four times between June 27, 1978 and the end of August, 1978 to plan for the implementaton of the new policy in September, 1978. The way the new policy was implemented is described and analysed against the three recommendations of the evaluation team on implementation. These recommendations centered on a time frame for phasing in the new scheduling plan, an evaluation strategy, and a mechanism to improve school/community relationships.

The evaluation team's recommendation on a time frame for implementation required the following: a start on student learning contracts and the teacher-consultant role initially for grades 9 and10; a limited provision for learning opportunities during optional time blocks with a movement towards project courses and credit options; and the planning of details for full implementation by September, 1979. This recommendation seemed to be largely ignored by the school in implementing the new scheduling policy.

A decision was taken to introduce learning contracts for all grades at ABJ for the Fall term of the 1978 school year and three thousand learning contract forms were printed in August. In early October, 1978 all students completed their learning contract forms in school with assistance from their teachers. The students took home the learning contracts for their parents' signatures which would indicate parents' satisfaction and commitment with the way students planned to spend their optional time. Many learning contracts were not returned and the Jordan Plan Newsletter of November 14, 1978 pleaded with parents to return the forms with their comments of approval or disapproval. The learning contract did not work well during the Fall term of 1978. In his interview the Jordan Plan coordinator speculated that the failure of the learning contract could be attributed to two main reasons. First, there seemed to be a lack of enthusiasm on the part of the teachers since the learning contract entailed more work for them in the capacity of teacher-consultants. Second, parents probably felt that they were left out of the most important decision on the way their children would spend their optional time. Parents seemed to be reluctant to merely endorse choices made in school. The learning contract worked no better in the Spring term. For a number of reasons the student learning contracts were not sent to parents until the end of February, 1979. There was further reluctance on the part of parents to return the learning contracts and they did not seem to work at any time during the implementation of the Plan.

In the evaluation report to the School Board on March 5, 1979 the Jordan Plan coordinator commented that some technical problems were encountered with the learning contracts "due to timing and initial unawareness of obstacles" but these were slowly being ironed out with practice. It is possible that had the school followed the recommendation of the evaluation team to implement the learning contract on a limited basis to grades 9 and 10 many of the difficulties encountered and the eventual failure of the learning contract would not have occurred.

The evaluation team saw the role of the teacher-consultant as vital to the successful operation of the new scheduling policy. The teacher-consultant was expected to facilitate learning and growth in maturity by working with students on an individual basis. This role required teachers to assist students to make wise decisions, to monitor the implementation of these decisions, and to see that the students benefit from the experience involved. The development team assigned the task of working out the details of the teacher-consultant role to the representative of the Superintendent's office. By the end of October, 1978 no details of the teacher-consultant role were developed. At the meeting of the development team on November 1, 1978 concerns regarding the teacher-consultant role were raised. It was noted that teachers were wondering whether they were "mini-academic counsellors or simply consultants for Jordan Plan activities." It was decided that a role description for teacher-consultant be developed as soon as possible. The Jordan Plan Newsletter of November 14, 1978 carried the following description of the teacher-consultant role:

> The teacher-consultancy could be thought of as having three phases, to denote initial steps and a goal towards which we might strive.
>
> Phase 1 - Jordan Plan Contract - (Prescribed time) the teacher to assist in the completion of the student contract, helping the student in the making of positive decisions. He would follow through to make certain parental understanding and acceptance have been achieved. Thereafter a periodic one-to-one contact be established to assist the student in maintaining a firm resolve, or to adjust the programme to alter needs.
>
> Phase 2 - Total Contract - The teacher become aware of the total contract. Periodic contracts will determine relative successes in the total contracted time. Liberal doses of congratulations or encouragement will need to be dispensed.
>
> Phase 3 - Total Student - The teacher, now aware of contracted obligations, permits himself to become more aware of the student as a total person. He now takes on a listener-advisor role. Students now will initiate contacts for advice and/or direction to other sources of needs fulfillment.

It was also noted in the newsletter that phase 1 was already being implemented, phase 2 was commencing, and phase 3 would be an ongoing process and will never be completely achieved. Despite the above role description the following distinct impressions gleaned from the documents and the interviews point to the failure to implement the teacher-consultant role: the teacher-consultant was not fully worked out and implemented; teachers were not overly enthusiastic about their role as teacher-consultants and seemed reluctant to take on the extra duties; teachers did not function as teacher consultants to any degree -- they merely assisted students to complete the learning contracts and encouraged students to participate in activities during optional time blocks; and teachers did not appear to be as actively involved as they should be in the developmental process required to implement the new policy.

Apparently the development team did not mount a deliberate search for any project courses or credit options for the optional time blocks as recommended by the evaluation team. For the Fall term, 1978 it was decided to schedule the structured courses already in existence under the old Jordan Plan and to search for more courses and activities along the same lines. Nowhere in the planning discussions or documents is there mention of project courses or credit options for students. The following list taken from the Jordan Plan Newsletter of November 14, 1978 illustrates the type of courses and activities offered in the optional time blocks:

- SKIING
  - downhill
  - cross-country
- YOGA
- OIL PAINTING
- TYPING
- HORSEMANSHIP
- MODELING AND BEAUTY CARE
- HOCKEY
- SELF DEFENCE
- DRIVER TRAINING
- CERAMICS, POTTERY
- WEAVING
- MACRAME
- RACQUETBALL
- GYMNASTICS
- SEWING
- FIRST AID
- COOKING
- WOOD CARVING
- BRIDGE
- CONVERSATIONAL GERMAN
- SILK SCREEN ART
- DRAMA
- SNORKEL DIVING
- SPRINGBOARD DIVING
- DANCING
  - Jazz
  - Ballroom for graduates
- HAND WRITING
- SPEED READING
- BOWLING
- BADMINTON
- ROLLER SKATING
- PHOTOGRAPHY
- BOOKING
- SHORTHAND
- PUBLIC SPEAKING

The Jordan Plan coordinator noted two major difficulties in scheduling activities in his evaluation report to the School Board on March 5, 1979. The first major difficulty was to find suitable instructors for activities during the hours 11:00 a.m. and 3:30 p.m. on Wednesdays when the optional time blocks were scheduled. The second major difficulty was the high costs of some of the more popular activities which limited the range of options from which students could choose. Notwithstanding these operational difficulties the implementation of activities for the optional time blocks could still be criticized for remaining with the type of activities reminiscent of the old Jordan Plan and not moving towards project courses and credit options in keeping with the concept of optional time.

While a development team was established to facilitate the implementation of the scheduling policy at ABJ its task and method of operation were different from those recommended by the evaluation team. Instead of implementing the new policy on a limited basis in the initial year and working out details for full implementation in September, 1979 a decision was taken to go ahead with full implementation for all grades in September, 1978. The evaluation team envisaged members of the development team working collaboratively in implementing the new scheduling plan. However, the data from the documents and the interviews with members of the School Board, the Jordan Plan coordinator, the Principal of ABJ and the two parent representatives on the operation of the development team seem to suggest that the Principal dominated activities. The following comments from the interviews seem to substantiate this : "the Principal as chairman instead of functioning as a facilitator forced his views on the team;" "it was not wise for the Principal to act as chairman of the development team -- it received poor leadership;" "the development team did not get the type of energy behind it to make it work;" "and this team made few decisions and was more-or-less a rubber stamp for the Principal's decisions."

The evaluation team's recommendation on an evaluation strategy suggested the development of a plan prior to September, 1978. The recommended evaluation plan was expected to include the aspects of the program to be evaluated, the types of data to be collected, sources of the data, when the data is to be collected, management of the evaluation, and how the evaluation results are to be applied to make modifications to the scheduling system. In its planning sessions prior to September, 1978 the development team decided to develop evaluation procedures "as they went along." At one meeting the School Board representative suggested that he would find out the expectations of the School Board for evaluation of the new plan and report these to the development team. At a meeting on November 8, 1978 the School Board representative reported that the School Board wished the evaluations to give a record of attendance at various courses by grades, highlight course successes and difficulties, and assess how well the teacher-consultant role was operating. Two evaluations were conducted along these lines by the Jordan Plan coordinator -- one in November, 1978 and the other in March, 1979.

From the way the evaluation strategy developed it could be inferred that neither the School Board nor the school grasped the importance of prior planning or the function of the evaluation strategy recommended by the evaluation team. The following comments taken from the interviews of members of the School Board seem to suggest this: "the evaluations were mainly meaningless statistics on student participation in extracurricular activities that did not really give a clue on how well the plan was working;" "it appeared that different people wanted different things from the evaluations;" "it was a pity that the requirements of the evaluation were not closely spelled out;" and "all we were getting was a bunch of numbers ... nothing new.... this did not tell how the plan was working ... [and] did not give anything on which the School Board could make any judgements."

The evaluation team recommended that an interim school/ community relations committee be established as soon as possible.

During the 1978/1979 school year this interim committee was expected to work out operational details for a continuing school/community relations committee. The evaluation team saw the permanent school/ community relations committee eventually overseeing all aspects of the new scheduling policy related to the optional time blocks. As a decision was taken to implement the full scheduling plan from September, 1978 this recommendation was also drastically changed. Obviously with this decision no interim committee was possible and the evaluation team's recommendation emerged as a communications committee. This committee with the two parents on the development team as co-chairpersons was given the task of informing the public about the new scheduling plan. This communication was done mainly through newsletters although there was some talk of using TV Channel 13, the church bulletin, and the Sherwood Park News.

Overall, the way the school implemented the new scheduling plan was very different from the recommendations of the evaluation team. This occurred although the School Board generally endorsed the recommendations of the evaluation team in its guidelines and representatives of ABJ had knowledge of these recommendations through their involvement in the advisory committee to the study of the Jordan Plan.

The Superintendent's Office. A representative from this office was on the development team to facilitate the implementation of the new scheduling plan at ABJ. Apart from attempting to develop the role of the teacher-consultant the Superintendent's office left the school to implement the new policy as it saw fit and apparently did not wish to become too involved in its daily operation.

Application of the Political Characteristics.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the institutional model seem to give the best explanation for the political interactions in the implementation stage of the policymaking process. In discussing the political interactions in the implementation stage it appears best to assess the extent to which the school followed the implementation strategy recommended by the evaluation team. Several reasons in the developmental process of the policy suggest this approach: representatives of the school were involved in the previous stages of the policymaking process from which emerged the Five-Day Week II as the scheduling plan and were aware of its key components and the implementation strategy; the School Board selected the Five-Day Week II after consultation with the school and generally endorsed the evaluation team's implementation strategy in its guidelines; and the Superintendent's office made a commitment to the School Board to assist the school in implementing the new policy. It is fair to say there was an expectation for the school to show a reasonable fidelity to the implementation strategy recommended by the evaluation team.

The data on the implementation process could be interpreted to indicate that the school wanted to give the appearance of implementing the new policy according to the strategy recommended by the evaluation team when in fact it was working subtly towards the downfall of the policy. All the labels of the various components of the new policy were present in implementation: there were student learning contracts, teacher-consultants, course options, a development team, evaluations, and a school/community relations committee. However, these were only there in name: instead of developing and phasing in the student learning contract on a limited basis it was implemented to all grades and turned out to be a meaningless paper form which few took seriously; instead of developing and phasing in the teacher-consultant role to facilitate student learning and growth towards maturity during the optional time blocks this role was introduced throughout the school resulting in teachers merely encouraging students to participate in the available activities and giving assistance in the completion of learning contracts; instead of searching for learning opportunities in the direction of project courses and credit options there was a continuation of the old Jordan Plan activities; instead of establishing a development team to work out collaboratively the details of the new policy for full implementation in September, 1979 the development team, according to some participants, was dominated by the Principal of ABJ and served as a rubber stamp for his decisions; instead of developing and using an evaluation plan to assist implementation and to provide data for decisionmaking the evaluation attempts mainly gave a head count of participants in the available activities during periods of optional time; and instead of establishing an interim school/community relations committee that would eventually oversee the operation of the optional time activities a communications committee was put in place to merely dispense news of the Plan to parents.

The obvious question at this stage is:Why might the school attempt to undermine the new policy? Legally the school was expected to carry out any policy enacted by the School Board. Also it would not be good politics on the part of the school to openly ignore the School Board's scheduling policy and guidelines for implementation. Thus, the school might elect to give the appearance that it was seriously implementing the policy while in reality it was trying to undermine it. The reason behind this apparent subversive attempt at implementation could have been a lack of commitment of the school to the new policy. This lack of commitment might have resulted from the process involved in determining the new policy, especially the interactions between the School Board and the school. The data from the interviews with members of the evaluation team point out that the feelings of ABJ staff were hurt over the fact that an outside evaluation team was brought in to study and make recommendations on the Jordan Plan. The staff felt this was an indication that its hard work was not being appreciated and its professional opinion that the Jordan Plan was educationally sound and functioning effectively was being called to question. There was a strong impression that "the writing was on the wall for the Jordan Plan" with the entry of the evaluation team as far as the staff was concerned and many members felt that the least they had to do with the Plan the better. In the policy choice stage of the policymaking process the school tried to influence the School Board in selecting either the entire Jordan Plan or the conventional five-day week schedule. These alternatives were ruled infeasible by the School Board. At the same time,the Jordan Plan coordinator in his interview noted that many teachers were dissatisfied that the Board selected a "half-way" plan in the Five-Day Week II scheduling policy. Further, the Principal in his interview hinted that no blame could be directed at the school for the failure of the new policy since "the School Board made the decision on the policy and the school was merely acting as caretaker."

The school's lack of commitment to the new policy and its apparently subversive attempt at implementation seem consistent with the institutional model. In Dye's (1975:19) terms ABJ was comprised of "structured patterns of behavior ... [that] ... tend to persist over time." The roles of teacher and administrator were always present despite the turnover of incumbents from time to time. Further, the new scheduling policy was nearly totally in the hands of ABJ staff throughout the 1978/1979 school year.

The structure of these patterns of behavior or the commitment of the individuals or groups involved could affect the implementation of a policy. Apparently, in this instance the school lacked commitment to the new policy and as an institution might have tried to protect itself by giving the appearance of attempting a genuine implementation while deliberately subverting the Plan.

Rational-Political Interactions

The description and analysis of the rational-political interactions in the policy implementation stage of the policymaking process were based on the interviews with members of the evaluation team, members of the School Board, the Superintendent, and the

Principal and Jordan Plan coordinator from ABJ; the various documents; and the insights of the researcher while a part of the evaluation team. As the evaluation team made its exit at the policy choice stage of the policymaking process there were no face-to-face interactions between experts and politicians. However, it is still possible to identify the orientation to the role of the expert for this stage in the set of recommendations the evaluation team devised to assist implementation. It is also possible to identify the apparent political motives of the school and the manner it used the experts' recommendations to gain its own ends.

The Evaluation Team. In order to inject rationality into the implementation of the new policy the evaluation team employed the strategic orientation. It did this by recommending a problem-solving process for implementation in a trial year within a broad general framework. Within this framework a development team made up of administrators, teachers, students, and parent representatives were expected to work collaboratively to explore and finalize details of the new scheduling policy for full implementation in September, 1979. The working together of representatives of key stakeholder groups in this way seem to indicate the evaluation team's reliance on the strategic orientation to resolve the potential barriers to implementation.

The School. Apparently, the political motives of the school were to work for the downfall of the new scheduling plan while giving the outward appearance of genuinely implementing its main features according to the strategy recommended by the evaluation team. The school might have used the labels of the key components of the new policy mainly as a cover for its efforts to undermine it. Thus, it seems that the school might have directed the evaluation team's rational inputs towards achieving its own political ends.

POLICY REVIEW STAGE

Techniques and Strategies to Generate Rational Inputs

The description and analysis of the techniques and strategies used by the evaluation team to generate rational inputs for this stage of the policymaking process were based on the interviews with members of the evaluation team, the working papers and final evaluation report, and the insights of the researcher while a part of the evaluation team.

Although the evaluation team made its exit at the policy choice stage of the policymaking process it anticipated that changes may have to be made as implementation progressed. As a result, the evaluation team recommended a rational strategy for the implementors to use in making any necessary changes. This strategy is captured in the recommendation on evaluation (Ingram et al. 1978:99) which stated in part that modifications to the new scheduling system should be made after considering the results of a well planned evaluation.

Application of the Rational Characteristics

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal model seem to describe the reasoning of the evaluation team in recommending a rational strategy to determine modifications to the new policy. This model argues for strengthening of the rational aspects and encourages the use of strong knowledge inputs in policymaking. A well designed evaluation strategy could be seen as systematizing the collection of relevant data on which judgements of the worth and functioning of the various components of the Plan could be made and providing the sound knowledge base necessary for decisions on changes.

Political Interactions

The political interactions in this stage of the policymaking process involved the school, the Superintendent's office, and the School Board. Data for the description and analysis of these political interactions were supplied by the interviews with the Principal and the Jordan Plan coordinator of ABJ, the two parents on the implementation development team, and the members of the School Board. The School Board appeared to be the political group with the final responsibility to review the scheduling policy.

The School. The Principal of ABJ made the decision to terminate the scheduling plan. The Principal took this decision to the staff for endorsement noting that support for his decision would be a vote of confidence for his leadership while nonsupport would be a vote of non confidence. Apparently, a majority of the teachers voted to scrap the plan while a significant minority tried to keep it. The Principal later informed the development team of the decision. This information took the parent representatives by surprise as there was no indication in their deliberations to that date to suggest that the plan was heading for its downfall. This underlines the apparent dominance of the Principal over the development team.

In a letter to the Superintendent of Schools dated May 4, 1979 requesting the termination of the scheduling policy the Principal assessed the situation by making the following three observations: community facilities and resources in Sherwood Park had increased in the form of a new library, recreational buildings and professional services; a "commuter-like" system of transportation had developed giving easy access to the educational resources and professional services in Edmonton; and while the scheduling plan had broadened the perspective of the educational program it had not met the expectations of all parents and students. The letter further stated that it was the considered opinion of the school that new forces in the community were calling for a return to the conventional five-day week schedule and something had to be done "to reconcile the needs of a significant number of our educational community." What the school proposed to be done was captured in two recommendations:

> - That the academic project known as the "Jordan Plan" be terminated as of June 29, 1979, with no provision for reinstatement in the 1979-1980 school year.
>
> - That the Board permit Archbishop Jordan High School to return to a traditional five day academic week, the time-table to be struck by the Administration of Jordan and approved by the Superintendent of Schools.

The school anticipated the following results if its recommendations were accepted: community perspectives on the structure and operation of ABJ would be stabilized; greater efforts from the community would be directed to education in ABJ; staff and students would pursue their tasks without the strains resulting from a contentious community; and the school program of the 1978/80 school year would be revitalized with new additions that could be made having been freed from the " 'time' impositions of the Jordan Plan."

The arguments of the school for the termination of the new scheduling policy were not based on the experience of implementation. No mention was made of how the new plan was working and no evaluation results were advanced to show difficulties or successes. Apart from ignoring the evaluation team's recommendation on evaluation this supports the view that the school was more concerned with political factors rather than the educational value of the new scheduling plan. The arguments seemed to be based on the context within which the new plan was operating; two points dealt with facilities and resources in Sherwood Park and easy accessibility to Edmonton while the third noted the differing expectations of parents and students. These factors were pointed out by the evaluation team in its five issues on the Jordan Plan controversy earlier in the policymaking process. At that time the evaluation team noted two important educational issues dealing with the identity of ABJ and the scope of the school's responsibility. Apparently these two considerations were not given much attention by the school. Further, in its letter the school reported that it perceived new forces in Sherwood Park calling for a return to the conventional five-day week schedule. However, nothing in the various interviews conducted by the researcher seem to substantiate this. In fact, the impression gained was that the situation was relatively quiet since the introduction of the new plan. To put these arguments in perspective it must be remembered that when the School Board was making its choice of policy the school had requested that the choice be between the old Jordan Plan or the conventional five-day week. It is possible that the school was making another bid for one of its preferred alternatives to be enacted as the scheduling policy.

The Superintendent's Office. Apparently, the Superintendent of Schools on receipt of the letter from the school requesting the termination of the scheduling policy recommended to the School Board that this be done.

The School Board. The School Board apparently accepted the recommendation to terminate the scheduling policy at ABJ and to reinstate the conventional five-day week schedule. At its meeting held in June 11, 1979 the Board passed the following motion by a vote of three to one:

> That the academic project known as the Jordan Plan be terminated as of June 29, 1979 with no provision for reinstatement in the 1979/80 school year. Also that the Board permit Archbishop Jordan High School to return to a traditional five day academic week, the timetable to be struck by the administration of AJH and approved by the Superintendent of Schools.

Application of the Political Characteristics.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest groups model seem to explain the political interactions of this stage of the policymaking process. In the early stages of the policymaking process it was pointed out that the School Board apparently could not have capitulated to the demands of the opposing group of parents to terminate the Jordan Plan because of political reasons. The School Board might have wanted to buy time and wait for a face saving solution to develop. When the recommendation was made to revert to the traditional five day week schedule the School Board may have thought it was time to move in this direction. The motivation for this decision could be based on a number of factors in the situation at that time. On the one hand, the School Board knew it had the backing of the supporting group of adults that had faith in the school system and this group was unlikely to apply any significant political pressure and make demands. On the other hand, the School Board perceived that it was the opposing group of adults it had to contend with in the future since this group was not strongly committed to the school system and would not hesitate to apply pressure and make demands for changes. In Latham's (1956:239) terms the School Board was apparently acceding to the demands of the opposing group of parents because this group was perceived as gaining in influence and a new equilibrium of power was being reached between the opposing and supporting groups of adults. Further the School Board felt probably it was in a sound position at this stage to terminate the scheduling plan and not lose face. It had gone through a process whereby a new plan was developed and implemented with the help of an outside evaluation team and this plan apparently failed to work.

In this stage it seems appropriate to speculate on the political interactions initiated by the school especially the Principal. Although there is no concrete evidence in the interviews or documents there is a strong impression that the Principal played a key political role for the school system in putting the new schedule quietly to rest. There is some indication of this in the political nature of the arguments in the letter to terminate the Plan. This political role of the Principal could also have been the reason why the implementation of the scheduling policy might have been stage managed to give the appearance of genuine implementation of the key components of the Plan recommended by the evaluation team. On this point it is also interesting to note that apparently the School Board and the Superintendent's office did not ask too many questions about the successes or failures of the scheduling plan being terminated but readily accepted the recommendation to revert to the conventional five-day week schedule.

Rational-Political Interactions

The rational-political characteristics cannot be applied to this stage of the policymaking process because the decision to terminate the scheduling policy was determined mainly by the political interactions among the school, the Superintendent's office, and the School Board.

CONCLUSIONS

Two sets of conclusions were drawn from the application of the rational-political model to the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling plan at ABJ. The first set of conclusions was concerned with the following for each of the five stages in the policymaking process: the policy analysis model or models that supplied the rational criteria for the techniques and strategies employed by the evaluation team in generating rational inputs for the policymaking process; the policy science model or models underlying the general laws explaining the interactions between and among the various political groups; and the role orientations of the evaluation team and the key political groups in their rational-political interactions. The second set of general conclusions emerged after consideration of the total policymaking process especially the roles of the evaluation team and the various political groups, and the rational-political interactions that were involved.

CONCLUSIONS ON EACH POLICYMAKING STAGE

Conclusions on the Identification of Issues Stage

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models seemed to guide the techniques and strategies of the evaluation team in identifying the issues surrounding the controversy over the Jordan Plan.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group model seemed to underlie the general laws explaining the political interactions that took place in this stage of the policymaking process.

The evaluation team seemed to use two orientations in its rational-political interactions: a strategic or problem-solving orientation to assist in resolving the controversy and a clinical orientation to correct deficiencies in the school system. The political motive of the School Board in its rational-political interactions was apparently to use the evaluation team to buy time until a later date when the political climate was more favorable for a decision. The evaluation team took the initiative in these rational-political interactions.

Conclusions on the Policy Development Stage

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models were apparently used by the evaluation team to guide its techniques and strategies to develop policy alternatives for presentation to the School Board.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group model again seemed to govern the political interactions in this stage of the policymaking process.

The evaluation team seemed to continue using the strategic and clinical orientations in its rational-political interactions. The political motive of the School Board was still apparently to use the evaluation team to buy enough time until the political climate became more favorable. The evaluation team again seemed to take the initiative in these rational-political interactions.

Conclusions on the Policy Choice Stage

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models were used apparently by the evaluation team to guide its techniques and strategies to recommend feasible policy alternatives to the School Board.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest groups model still seemed to explain the political interactions in this stage. However, there seem to be evidence of elements of the institutional model emerging.

The evaluation team apparently continued to use the strategic and clinical orientations in its rational-political interactions. The political motive of the School Board in its rational-political interactions in this stage were apparently to use the evaluation team to retain its political credibility and to affirm its policymaking authority in the school system. The School Board took the initiative in these rational-poltical interactions.

Conclusions on the Policy Implementation Stage

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal model seemed to guide the techniques and strategies of the evaluation team in developing the set of recommendations to facilitate the implementation of the new policy.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the institutional model seemed to underlie the explanations of the political interactions which were dominated by the school during the implementation of the scheduling plan.

The evaluation team seemed to employ only the strategic orientation in recommending a problem-solving approach to the implementation of the plan. The apparent political motive of the school in its rational-political interactions was to work for the downfall of the scheduling plan. The school seemed to do this under cover of the rational inputs of the evaluation team on the new policy and its implementation strategy.

Conclusions on the Policy Review Stage

The evaluation team was apparently using the rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal model when it recommended that modifications to the scheduling policy should be based on rational grounds -- on the result of a carefully planned and implemented evaluation strategy.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group model seemed to govern the political interactions of the policy termination stage of the process.

The rational-political characteristics were not applicable to this stage as policy termination was determined by the political interactions among the school, the Superintendent's office, and the School Board.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions on the Role of the Adult Groups.

1. Of the total population of adults in Sherwood Park only a small number seemed to have been actively involved in the controversy over the Jordan Plan. The group opposing the Plan had five or six forceful

individuals in leadership roles while a similar number represented the group supporting it. The majority of adults was not involved in the controversy.

2. The adult groups were mainly involved in the identification of issues stage and the policy development stage of the policymaking process. These stages involved much political activity on the part of the opposing group of adults and were very important in determining the values, attitudes and strengths of the various groups, setting the boundaries of the conflict and assessing the feasibility of alternative scheduling plans for ABJ.

3. While there were three identifiable adult groups the controversy over the Jordan Plan centered apparently on the activities of the opposing group. This group provided the energy and the motivating force behind the controversy and was the catalyst to the policymaking process that ensued. This group went about its task of putting pressure and making demands on the School Board in a systematic and determined fashion and behaved like an experienced pressure group. On the other hand, the supporting group was not a pressure group and did not engage the opposing group in a struggle to have its values and attitudes enacted as policy. This group of adults relied apparently on a strategy of quiet support for the School Board which it perceived as representing its values, attitudes and wants. The indifferent group of adults played no part in the controversy.

4. In terms of influence (Latham, 1956:239) in the Sherwood

Park Catholic Separate School System it appeared that the opposing group of adults was gaining in influence at the expense of the supporting group. This is supported by the fact that in the end the School Board satisfied the demands of the opposing group for a return to the conventional five-day week schedule while setting aside the values and attitudes of the supporting group that were represented by the Jordan Plan.

Conclusions on the Role of the Superintendent's Office

The Superintendent's office played a key "linking pin" and facilitative role throughout the policymaking process. When the School Board decided to commission an outside evaluation team to study the controversy over the Jordan Plan it was this office that made the arrangements. The Superintendent's office facilitated the collection of the data and in establishing the advisory committee to the study. In the policy choice stage the Superintendent's office advised the School Board on the financial feasibility and practicability of alternatives. It also discussed and received feedback from the school on the alternatives deemed most feasible by the School Board. This office further provided assistance to the school in implementing the new scheduling plan and advised the School Board on termination after receiving a letter from the school supporting this move. Throughout, the Superintendent's office stayed in the background and did not get actively involved in the political process. It did not try to advocate any particular scheduling plan.

Conclusions on the Role of the School

1. Apart from being represented on the advisory committee to the evaluation team and assisting in data collection the school was not a significant political force in the identification of issues and policy development stages of the policymaking process. Its concerns for the educational aspects of the scheduling plan were important to the evaluation team in determining alternatives but the political struggle was between the opposing group of adults and the School Board. The school respected the rules laid down by the School Board to manage the conflict and remained quietly in the background.

2. In the policy choice stage the school became more involved in the political process and wanted its voice heard in the final choice on policy. The School Board ruled the alternatives suggested by the school as politically infeasible. The school was not satisfied apparently with the alternative chosen and there were indications that this led to a lack of commitment to the new scheduling plan. This lack of commitment proved to be a key factor in the implementation.

3. In implementing the new scheduling plan the school seemed to behave very much like a political institution asked to put in effect a policy that it felt no responsibility for and to which it had little commitment. Giving the outward appearance of implementing the new scheduling plan the school worked effectively towards its termination.

4. Apparently the Principal of the school played a key role in the political process in laying the Jordan Plan to rest and in reverting to the traditional five-day week schedule. Probably this political role may have been behind the apparently subversive attempt at implementation and the political reasons advanced for the termination of the Plan.

Conclusions on the Role of the School Board

1. The School Board had key responsibility for four of the five stages in the policymaking process. Responsibility for the implementation stage was given primarily to the school.

2. The political interactions initiated by the School Board in the four stages where it held key responsibility appeared to follow the interest groups model of policymaking. Faced with pressure and demands from a group of adults against an existing scheduling plan representing the values, attitudes, and wants of group of adults supportive of the school system, the School Board set up a mechanism and rules to mediate the conflict. In the policy choice stage the School Board enacted a compromise between the demands of the opposing group and the existing Jordan Plan as its policy. Later on the School Board gave in totally to the original demands of the opposing group and accepted the conventional five day week as the scheduling plan for ABJ. A major reason for this decision might have been the Board's perception of the growing influence of the opposing group of adults in the affairs of the

school system. The School Board might have felt that its political future depended on how well it satisfies the values, attitudes, and wants of this group.

3. The manner in which the School Board held the school accountable for the implementation of the new plan and the unquestioned acceptance of the recommendation for termination seemed to suggest that this may have been a part of the Board's strategy to lay the Jordan Plan quietly to rest and to revert to the conventional five-day week schedule without losing face. Although there was no concrete evidence there was a strong impression from the data that the Principal probably played a key role in this aspect of the political process.

4. Apparently, the School Board wanted a political process that included an outside evaluation team that would successfully resolve a controversy which at first it did not know how to handle. Through this process the Board retained its political credibility, assessed the new equilibrium of power between adult groups within the system, and quietly reestablished its policymaking position.

5. In its rational-political interactions with the evaluation team the School Board seemed to adopt an orientation to use the rational inputs as an instrument of power and political positioning to postpone decisions and win political leverage (Rein & White 1977:120). In the identification of issues and policy development stages the motive of the School Board seemed to be to buy time until the political climate was more favorable for a decision. By the policy choice stage the controversy was somewhat defused because of the passage of time

and the activities of the evaluation team. The School Board was able to enact a compromise policy and not capitulate or lose face to the opposing group. Apparently, gauging the political situation and perceiving the influence of the adult groups to be moving towards the opposing group after one year of implementing the new plan the School Board enacted the conventional five-day week as policy in keeping with this group preferences. Thus, by skilfully using the rational inputs of the evaluation team the School Board was able to manoeuvre into a favorable position and retain its political power.

Conclusions on the Role of the Evaluation Team

1. The evaluation team was apparently successful in its primary task of assisting the School Board to resolve the controversy over the Jordan Plan. In the first three stages of the policymaking process the evaluation team effectively took the pressure off the School Board by performing a mediating role among the various political groups involved. The policymaking process engineered by the evaluation team allowed the School Board to adjust successfully to the new equilibrium of influence among adult groups in Sherwood Park. It is important to note that the success of the evaluation team cannot be judged against the implementation experience of the new scheduling plan at ABJ according to accepted views on how educational plans and programs should be implemented. Unlike the implementation of typical educational plans and programs where

fidelity to procedures and key features is a major criterion of success, the implementation process engaged in could be interpreted as part of a political process designed to systematically phase out the Jordan Plan and reinstate the conventional five-day week schedule.

2. Apparently, the evaluation team was unable to accomplish its second, but less important, task of correcting the deficiencies in the school system to enable it to deal with emergent problems because of the extremely political nature of the controversy. Two deficiencies were identified in the school system -- a failure to monitor changes in the community and adjust its internal operations, and the inability to work collaboratively with adult groups. The attempts of the evaluation team to correct these deficiencies in the advisory committee and in the problem-solving structure recommended for implementing the new plan seemed to have been swept aside by the politics involved.

3. Basically, the evaluation team seemed to rely on the optimal model to guide its activities in generating rational inputs throughout the policymaking process. It employed a problem-solving approach using available rational procedures, significant knowledge inputs, and up-to-date computer equipment. As this was an extremely political controversy the evaluation team adapted its approach to suit the political situation by drawing also from the incremental model to highlight political considerations in the first three stages of the policymaking process, to identify the

issues, develop alternatives and make recommendations for selecting a final policy.

4. Apparently, the evaluation team employed mainly the strategic orientation in its rational-political interactions. Evidence of this is seen in the importance the evaluation team placed on assisting the School Board in resolving the controversy over the Jordan Plan and its overall strategy in the process. The evaluation team seemed to recognize both the conflicting interests as well as the common ones in its relationship with the school system and entered into a relationship of give-and-take and mutual influence. Further, the evaluation team allowed the boundaries of the controversy rather than the boundaries of its discipline to dictate its overall strategy and used a multi-disciplinary approach to identify issues and develop solutions and recommendations.

The evaluation team also seemed to use the clinical orientation to some degree. However, because of the lack of trust on the part of the most important adult group, the opposing group, and the extreme political nature of the controversy, this orientation did not appear to have any significant effect on the outcomes of the policymaking process.

5. Overall, the role of the evaluation team in the policymaking process appeared to be consistent with some of the more recent literature on ways the expert can more effectively impact policymaking. For example, Worth (1977:9) suggests that the policy researcher should make increased use of the political model and

have the ability to bargain, compromise, and build consensus without losing sight of his prime motive which is to aid the cause of rationality. The evaluation team realized that it was dealing with a political controversy and apparently did not behave as a pure agent of rationality but instead established a mechanism in the form of an advisory committee to manage the political process and cultivate a climate for the acceptance of a reasonable compromise as policy. However, while engaged actively in the political process the evaluation team employed available rational procedures in its strategy and based its development of alternatives and recommendations on sound educational knowledge and practice. Worth (1977:10) further notes that for the policy researcher to be effective he has to expand his view of the role of research to include problem identification, analysis of possible alternatives, and evaluation of outcomes. The evaluation team seemed to have followed this expanded view of the policy researcher's role because it identified the issues underlying the Jordan Plan controversy, developed and rated a number of alternatives, and evaluated the potential outcomes of the various alternatives including two preferred ones.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the case study that resulted from the application of the rational-political model to the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan at Archbishop Jordan High School in Sherwood Park. Three sets of descriptions and analyses for each of the five stages -- identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review -- in the policymaking process were discussed. Finally, a number of conclusions for each of the five stages was drawn together with a list of general conclusions on the adult groups, the Superintendent's office, the school, the School Board, and the evaluation team that played major roles in the process.

CHAPTER VI

ASSESSMENT OF THE USEFULNESS OF THE RATIONAL-POLITICAL MODEL

This chapter assesses the usefulness of the rational-political model in describing and assessing the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling plan at Archbishop Jordan High School in Sherwood Park. The rational-political model was assessed against the six criteria for the usefulness of policymaking models adapted from Dye (1975:38-39) and listed on page 54 of this thesis. Using these criteria of usefulness the assessment focused mainly on the characteristics of the rational-political model, the experience of applying the rational-political model to the case study in policymaking, and a comparison with relevant policymaking models identified in the literature. A conclusion on the usefulness of the rational-political model on each of the six criteria is also included.

Criterion I: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Ordering and Simplifying Political Life.

Characteristics. The rational-political model conceives policymaking as a developmental process involving five sequential, but interrelated stages, namely, identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review. Each stage is concerned with a specific function in the policymaking process and subsequent stages are dependent on how well the functions were conducted in the previous stages. Further, the rational-political model includes three major sets of characteristics -- rational characteristics, political characteristics, and rational-political characteristics -- allowing the description and analysis of the policymaking process to have three distinct foci. These are directed to the techniques and strategies experts use to generate rational inputs, the approaches politicians use to manipulate interactions towards political ends, and the role orientations of the experts and politicians in their rational-political interactions.

Thus, the characteristics of the rational-political model possess the ability to order and simplify the way the policymaking process can be viewed. On one level a description and analysis could be conducted on a stage-by-stage basis while on another level the description and analysis could be according to the three foci of the three sets of characteristics for the entire five-stage policymaking process. Further, these same characteristics simplify the description and analysis because they delineate clearly the roles, techniques, strategies, and approaches of all the key groups in the policymaking process.

Application to Case Study. When applied to the case study the rational-political model assisted in ordering and simplifying the description and analysis of the policymaking process. Apart from allowing a stage-by-stage description and analysis the three major sets of characteristics facilitated the arrangement of the data in such a way as to highlight the significant aspects of the policymaking process as they related to the activities of the experts and politicians. Further, the model proved to be flexible in its application since its three major sets of characteristics were comprised of rational criteria from several policy analysis models, the general laws underlying the explanation from various policy science models, and the literature on the role orientations of experts and politicians. It was relatively simple to pinpoint the rational criteria employed by experts, the approaches used by politicians to manipulate relationships, and the role orientations of the experts and politicians in their rational-political interactions.

Comparison with Relevant Policymaking Models. No other model was identified in the literature reviewed that attempted to order and simplify the description and analysis of a policymaking process in the manner of the rational-political model. The rational-political model focuses at the same time on the techniques and strategies employed by experts to generate rational inputs, the approaches politicians use to manipulate relationships, and the role orientations of experts and politicians. The two general models identified in the literature, the optimal model and the systems model, seem too narrow for the description and analysis attempted by the rational-political model. The optimal model seems to focus mainly on the techniques and strategies that could be used by experts to generate rational inputs while the systems model seems to focus primarily on the interactions among politicians. Further, the systems model appears too general and simplistic to guide the type of description and analysis in a case study such as the one used in this study.

Conclusion. It is concluded that the rational-political model has demonstrated its ability to order and simplify the description and analysis of the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling plan at ABJ. In comparison with the existing general policymaking models identified in the literature, it is also concluded that the rational-political model seems to have the best potential to order and simplify the description and analysis of any policymaking process similar to the one in this case study.

Criterion II: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Identifying the Really Significant Aspects of Public Policymaking.

Characteristics. The rational-political model was designed to identify the significant aspects of a policymaking process that actively involved experts and politicians. In such a process it seems important to focus on the interactions among politicians, the techniques and strategies employed by the experts, and the interactions between experts and politicians. The rational-political model facilitates these three foci by including a political component, a rational component, and a rational-political component. Dye (1975:38) cautions that what is "significant" is to some extent a function of an individual's values. The characteristics of the rational-political model accommodates this caveat within its broad framework which includes rational criteria from several policy analysis models and general laws underlying explanations from various policy science models. Thus, the rational-political model provides for a wide spectrum of significant aspects of policymaking.

Application to the Case Study. The rational-political model identified the significant aspects of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan at ABJ and facilitated their description and analysis. Several political groups were identified in the political component: the School Board, the superintendent's office, the school, the opposing group of adults, the supporting group of adults, and the indifferent group of adults. The explanations for the political interactions in four of the five stages of the policymaking process were subsumed mainly under the interest groups model. However, elements of the institutional model were emerging in the policy choice stage and were dominant in the implementation stage of the process. The outside evaluation team from the University of Alberta was identified as the group of experts in the rational component. The techniques and strategies employed throughout by these experts seemed consistent with the optimal model, but elements of the incremental model appeared to be present in the first three stages of the process. In the rational-political component the interactions appeared to be primarily between the evaluation team and the School Board, although the other political groups were also involved from time to time. The evaluation team used both the strategic and clinical orientations in its role in the rational-political interactions with the dual aim to assist in resolving the controversy and in correcting any deficiencies in the school system hindering response to emergent problems. On the other hand, the School Board seemed to adopt an orientation in these rational-political interactions to use the rational inputs as an instrument of power and political positioning to postpone decisions and win political leverage.

Comparison with Relevant Policymaking Models. Again the rational-political model could be compared only to the two general policymaking models -- the optimal model and the systems model -- identified in the literature reviewed. While the optimal model appears to deal in detail with the rational component it does not address adequately the political and the rational-political components. On the other hand, the systems model sketches in a very general way a policymaking process where the political system reacts to imputs from the environment. In identifying the significant aspects of the process the systems model, being so broad, is not very helpful as can be seen in the definitions of "environment" and "political system." According to Dye (1975:38) the environment is any condition or circumstance outside the boundaries of the political system while the political system is "that group of interrelated structures and processes which functions authoritatively to allocate values in society."

The rational-political model includes the strength of the systems model together with rational criteria from several other policy analysis models in its rational component, while it incorporates political components from the various policy science models with clearly defined general laws to explain political interactions. Further, the rational-political model develops a rational-political component from the literature. This component focuses on rational-political interactions between experts and politicians and delves into the possible role orientations and motives involved.

Conclusion. It is concluded that the rational-political model has identified the significant aspects of the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling policy at ABJ. Further, in comparison with the other two general policymaking models identified in the literature reviewed, it is also concluded that the rational-political model seems to have the best potential to identify the significant aspects in a policymaking process that actively involves experts and politicians.

Criterion III: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Achieving Congruence with Reality by Having Real Empirical Referents.

Characteristics. The rational characteristics and the political characteristics included in the model seem congruent with reality and have real empirical referents because they are based on existing policymaking models. According to the literature, these models are accepted by both practitioners and researchers. The three orientations to the role of the expert -- the academic, the clinical, and the strategic -- were taken from Archibald (1970) who developed them from detailed interviews of experts in defence research. Although the literature reviewed did not reveal any further use of these three orientations to the role of the expert, Archibald's work does offer some empirical background. At the same time, these three orientations to the role of the expert have close links with reality in other areas of the social sciences. As the names indicate the academic orientation is linked to the academician, the clinical orientation to the psychotherapist, and the strategic orientation to the systems analyst. The possible orientations to the role of the politician represented in the rational-political characteristics also have empirical referents in the literature discussing the typical ways politicians use rational inputs. The overall orientation of the politician seems to be directed at manipulating rational-political interactions for political ends.

Application to the Case Study. The description and analysis that emerged from the application of the rational characteristics and the political characteristics of the rational-political model to the policymaking process seemed to be congruent with reality. They were consistent with the findings of previous empirical studies that used the established policy analysis and policy science models. For example, the strategies and techniques employed by the experts to generate rational imputs appeared to be in keeping with the optimal model together with elements from the incremental model. Also the political interactions can be explained by the interest group and the institutional models. Thus, the description, analysis and conclusions for the rational and political components were not difficult. There is a large number of studies using the rational criteria of the policy analysis models and the general laws explaining political interactions in the policy science models to act as a check for consistency and congruence. However, the description, analysis and conclusions in the rational-political component proved to be more difficult.

This difficulty was apparent mainly in trying to determine the orientations to the role of the politicians and political motives in the rational-political interactions. The orientations to the role of the experts and their motives were relatively simple to pinpoint as the three orientations are clearly delineated and their characteristics have background in the social science literature. For example, the roles and approaches of the academician, the psychotherapist, and the systems analyst are clearly defined. Further, the strategies employed by the experts in their rational-political interactions are well documented because of the nature of their work and can be reconstructed with some accuracy. On the other hand, the strategies and motives of the politician are shrouded in secrecy and are rarely made explicit. As a result, the description, analysis and conclusions on the strategies and motives of the politician in rational-political interactions had to rely mainly on speculation and inference from the data. This aspect of the policymaking process could not benefit from the check usually provided by the findings and insights of previous empirical studies. Nevertheless this is not a weakness of the rational-political model but a function of the phenomenon being studied. Further, the rational-political model seems to be breaking new ground in this area for it appears that none of the policymaking models in the literature reviewed grappled with this elusive sphere of interactions.

Comparison with Relevant Policymaking Models. The rational-political model appears to be more congruent with the reality of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan than any of the policymaking models reviewed in the literature. As mentioned before the two general policymaking models -- the optimal model and the systems model -- are inadequate for the type of description and analysis required for the policymaking process in this case study. The optimal model seem to reflect mainly the reality of the rational component but not so much the political component or the rational-political component. The systems model does not seem to deal with the reality of the interactions in any of the three components. All the interactions appear to be hidden in a "black box" labeled the political system. Since the systems model transforms inputs into outputs through this "black box" all interactions are hidden from view and thus difficult to decipher.

Conclusion. It is concluded that the rational-political model was to a large extent congruent with the reality of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. In comparison with the other models reviewed in the literature it is further concluded that the rational-political model shows the greatest degree of congruence with the reality of a policymaking process actively involving experts and politicians.

Criterion IV: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Communicating Meaningfully.

The discussion on the effectiveness of the rational-political model on its ability to communicate meaningfully seems related to the previous discussion on the extent to which the rational-political model was congruent with reality. It appears to follow that the degree of congruence between the rational-political model and reality would affect its ability to communicate meaningfully. It was concluded that there was a large degree of congruence between the rational-political model and the reality of the process that was being studied.

Characteristics. The rational-political model was designed to communicate meaningfully about various aspects of the policymaking process by drawing from existing models and the available literature. The criteria for the rational characteristics were taken from relevant policy analysis models while the political characteristics were based on the general laws underlying the explanations of political interactions in selected policy science models. Thus, the concepts in the rational component and the political component of the model ought to communicate meaningfully since they appear to be accepted and used by practitioners and researchers in policymaking. The concepts describing the orientations to the roles of the expert and the politician are less well known but have a basis in the social science literature and were logically developed therefrom. An attempt was made to more clearly define the concepts in the rational-political component to eliminate ambiguity and clarify meaning.

Application to the Case Study. There was no apparent difficulty in applying the rational-political model to the case study as far as communication was concerned. The three components of the rational-political model seemed to guide the discussion of the description and analysis of the various aspects of the policymaking process in such a way as to insure meaningful communication.

Comparison with Relevant Policymaking Models. When compared with the policymaking models reviewed the rational-political model appeared better able to communicate meaningfully about the process under study. While the other models seem to deal with specific aspects of the process the rational-political model deals comprehensively with most aspects of the policymaking process. For example, it appears that none of the models reviewed address in any detail the rational-political interactions involved in the policymaking process. To communicate meaningfully it seems that a model must include the concepts necessary to describe and analyse the existing phenomena. As this case study chose to take a comprehensive view of the policymaking process the rational-political model appears to be superior to the other models reviewed in its ability to communicate meaningfully about all aspects of the process.

Conclusion. It is concluded that the rational-political model showed the ability to communicate meaningfully the various aspects of the policymaking process in this case study. In comparison with the models reviewed it is also concluded that the rational-political model is better able to communicate meaningfully about a policymaking process that is viewed comprehensively.

Criterion V: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Directing Inquiry and Research.

Characteristics. The literature reviewed seem to suggest a need for a comprehensive model integrating the approaches of the policy analysis and policy science models of policymaking to give an overall view of the process. It seems that such a model would facilitate the study of the respective roles of rationality and politics, illuminate understanding of the influence of these two competing forces, and in the end, make for a strengthened approach to policymaking. For example, Downey (1977) and Ingram (1978) have been advocating such a model. It was from this perspective that the rational-political model was designed. Concomitant with such a model is the key area of interactions represented in the interface between the expert and the politician in the policymaking process. Lerner (1976:17) points out that this interface is an important but neglected area in the study of policymaking. Archibald (1970) suggests that the most important aspect of this interface seems to be the role orientations adopted by the expert and the politician.

To fulfill all of these requirements the comprehensive rational-political model incorporated three sets of characteristics. The first set, the rational characteristics, was designed to address the rational component of the policymaking process. The second set, the political characteristics, was developed to describe and analyse the interactions in the political component. The third set, the rational-political characteristics, was devised to examine the interface beteen the expert and the politician. Together, these three sets of characteristics were designed to direct a comprehensive description and analysis of a policymaking process much in keeping with the type of rational-political models that are advocated in the literature.

Application to the Case Study. The rational-political model did seem to facilitate a comprehensive description and analysis on the three major areas of interest in this study -- the rational aspects, the political interactions, and the interface between the expert and the politician -- of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. The rational characteristics enabled the identification of the rational criteria used by the experts at various stages; the political characteristics enabled the identification of the political interactions involved; and the rational-political characteristics enabled the identification of the apparent role orientations and motives of the expert and the politician during their interactions in the policymaking process.

An interesting serendipitous finding, from applying the rational-political model to the case study, was the freedom and flexibility it allowed in describing and analysing the policymaking process. This exercise was not constrained by any one model from either policy science or policy analysis where the data had to be viewed through one particular set of concepts. With the wide range of concepts included in the rational-political model the data dictated the choice of concepts to be used and this made it possible to highlight the type of rationality, the type of political interactions, and the role orientations of the expert and the politician in the most appropriate terms. A common criticism of comprehensive models is that their wide scope could be their greatest weakness since this could militate against focused description and analysis. However, this was not the experience with the application of the rational-political model to this case study. Focus was maintained as the three sets of characteristics directed attention on particular aspects of the policymaking process. In its application the rational-political model seemed to capture the freedom and flexibility afforded by a wide range of concepts from several policymaking models without losing the ability to focus on key aspects of the process.

Comparison with the Relevant Policymaking Models. It was pointed out under the four previous criteria of usefulness that the rational-political model has characteristics that give it greater comprehensiveness than any of the policymaking models reviewed. Therefore, the rational-political model appears better equipped to direct a comprehensive description and analysis of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan including the activities of experts, the interactions among politicians, and the rational-political interactions between experts and politicians.

Conclusion. It is concluded that the rational-political model demonstrated the ability to direct a comprehensive description and analysis of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. In comparison with the other policymaking models reviewed it is further concluded that the rational-political model appears better equipped to direct a comprehensive description and analysis of a policymaking process that actively involves experts and politicians.

Criterion VI: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Suggesting Explanations about Public Policymaking.

It seems necessary to view the assessment of the rational-political model on its ability to suggest explanations about the causes and consequences about public policymaking from two perspectives. The first perspective deals with the rational-political model's ability to suggest explanations for the causes (the consequences were not addressed in this case study) of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. The second perspective assesses the rational-political model's ability to suggest generalizable explanations for the entire field of public policymaking from the experience of this case study.

Characteristics. From the first perspective the rational-political model was expected to suggest explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. For this purpose the characteristics of the rational-political model were based on the different types of rational criteria from various policy analysis models, the general laws underlying explanations of political interactions from several policy science models, and the literature on role orientations of the expert and the politician. These rational criteria from the policy analysis models and the general laws of explanations from the policy science models have demonstrated their explanatory ability since they seem to be accepted and used by practitioners and researchers in policymaking. At the same time, the orientations to the roles of the expert and the politician appear to have some explanatory ability according to the background literature from which they were developed.

From the second perspective the rational-political model was not expected to suggest generalizable explanations with regards to causes for the entire field of public policymaking from the experience of this case study. Towards this end the best that could have been expected was the possibility of generating a number of heuristic hypotheses. By the nature of the exercise these heuristic hypotheses were expected to be very general and tentative. Their usefulness lie in pointing to the direction from which explanations for public policymaking could come. They would require much delimitation and modification later. To a large extent this was an exploratory study using the rational-political model. This comprehensive descriptive model is different from existing comprehensive models in the literature reviewed and was not expected to do any more than lay the groundwork for the development of explanatory models at a later stage.

Application to the Case Study. From the first perspective the rational-political model did suggest explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. These causes emanated from three sources -- the activities of the experts to inject rationality into the process, the interactions among politicians, and the attempts by the experts and the politicians to influence each other. The explanations for the activities of the experts were in keeping with the optimal and incremental models. The explanations for the political interactions seemed consistent with the general laws supplied by the interest group and institutional models. The explanations for the efforts of the experts to influence the politicians were characteristic of the strategic and clinical orientations. Finally the explanations for the motives of the politicians resided in a strategy to use the experts' rational inputs as an instrument of power and political positioning to postpone decisions and gain political leverage.

From the second perspective the following heuristic hypotheses were generated from the experience of this case study:

1. In systems terms, the rational system -- the sphere of activities of the expert -- is a subsystem of the larger political system -- the sphere of activities of the politician. In a policymaking process actively involving the expert and the politician there is an unequal power relationship in their interactions. The politician has greater power, and in the end, tends to get his way over the efforts of the expert.
2. The politician has the final word on the allocation of values in society. In the policymaking process the expert is primarily a technician providing the means for the politician to allocate values in society as he sees fit.
3. The role orientation the politician adopts in the policymaking process is dictated by political expediency. Thus the purposes to which the politician puts rational inputs reflect political realities. For the expert to effectively impact the policymaking process he has to gauge the political realities of the situation and the corresponding motivations of the politician and make his techniques

and strategies responsive to these.

4. In a policymaking process that involves a political controversy the expert can only assist in resolving the controversy and not rectify any deficiencies in the political system that may have contributed to the problem initially. The visibility and preoccupation with political tensions tend to negate any attempts to improve the system.
5. The expert who adopts the academic orientation is likely to have little impact on the policymaking process. The politics of the situation dominates and the politician has considerable scope to manipulate the expert's rational inputs for any of a number of political purposes as he sees fit.
6. When the expert employs the academic role orientation his techniques and strategies to generate and use rational inputs are guided by a policy analysis model. This model is likely to be closely aligned to the pure rationality model.
7. The expert who adopts the clinical orientation is likely to be ineffective in the policymaking process. This orientation places the expert in a more dominant role than the politician in the process. This power relationship is not likely to be tolerated by the politician. This leads to a lack of influence and eventual ineffectiveness for the expert.
8. When the expert employs the clinical role orientation his

techniques and strategies to generate and use rational inputs are guided by a policy analysis model. This model is likely to approximate the optimal model of policymaking.

9. The expert who adopts the strategic orientation to his role is likely to be most effective in the policymaking process. This orientation involving mutual assessment, mutual influence, conflict management, and encouragement of collaboration has the greatest potential to aid the cause of rationality in the process.
10. When the expert employs the strategic orientation his techniques and strategies to generate and use rational inputs are guided by a comprehensive model drawing elements from both policy analysis and policy science. This comprehensive model is likely to approximate the approach taken in the rational-political model.

Comparison with Relevant Policymaking Models. The rational-political model designed as a comprehensive descriptive model to guide this study offered explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan that none of the policymaking models reviewed alone could have provided. Again, because of its comprehensiveness the rational-political model was able to generate a number of hueristic hypotheses that none of the policymaking models seemed able to do.

Conclusion. It is concluded that the rational-political model showed the ability to suggest explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. While it was not designed to generate generalizable explanations for the causes of public policymaking from this case study the rational-political model did elicit a number of heuristic hypotheses. In comparison with the other policymaking models reviewed it is further concluded that the rational-political model seemed better able to suggest explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan and to generate some heuristic hypotheses for public policymaking.

SUMMARY

This chapter assessed the usefulness of the rational-political model in describing and analysing the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan against six criteria derived from the literature. These six criteria of usefulness were applied to the characteristics of the rational-political model, the experience of applying the rational-political model to the case study, and a comparison of the rational-political model to relevant policymaking models. It was concluded that on all six criteria the rational-political model proved to be useful in describing and analysing the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan in Archbishop Jordan High School in Sherwood Park. It was further concluded that in comparison to the other policymaking models reviewed in the literature the rational-political model appears better equipped to facilitate a comprehensive description and analysis of policymaking process actively involving politicians and experts.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, conclusions, implications for theory and practice, and recommendations for further research.

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was three-fold:

1. To develop a general descriptive model capable of describing and analysing the roles of experts and politicians in a policymaking process.
2. To apply the general descriptive model to study a policymaking process, namely, the modification of the Jordan Plan in Archbishop Jordan High School in Sherwood Park.
3. To assess the usefulness of the general descriptive model in describing and analysing a policymaking process.

Significance of the Study

This study was significant for three reasons. First, the development and application of comprehensive models, especially those attempting to synthesize the rational and political approaches, seem to be a primary focus of attention in the literature on policymaking at this time yet no comprehensive model exists for this purpose. Second, there appears to be a need for better understanding of the role of research im policymaking. Third, there seems to be a need among educational practitioners to learn about innovations in schools from the insights and experiences of those who venture into this challenging but sometimes frustrating field. This study addressed these three areas of perceived needs by developing and employing the rational-political model to describe and analyse the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan, a contemporary educational innovation.

Methodology

A methodology involving three distinct sequential phases was employed to accomplish the three-fold purpose of the study.

Phase I: Developing the General Descriptive Model

In this phase a comprehensive review of the literature on policymaking was undertaken. This review explored relevant policy analysis and policy science models, orientations to the roles of the expert and the politician, and the various stages in the policymaking process. This exercise provided the concepts and details for the development of the rational-political model, which was comprised finally of three major components -- rational characteristics, political characteristics and rational-political characteristics -- in a policymaking process involving five sequential but interrelated stages. The five stages in the policymaking process were identification of issues, policy development, policy choice, policy implementation and policy review.

The three major components of the rational-political model corresponded with the three primary foci of the description and analysis of the case study in policymaking:the techniques and strategies used by experts to generate rational imputs; the interactions among politicians; and the interactions between experts and politicians. The rational characteristics were developed from the criteria for rationality and the main processes involved in relevant policy analysis models: the pure rationality model; the satisficing model; the incremental model; the mixed scanning model; and the optimal model. The political characteristics were drawn from the general laws underlying explanations for the interactions in relevant policy science models: the institutional model; the interest group model; the elite-mass model; and the systems model. The rational-political characteristics were based on the literature on the orientations to the role of the expert and the politician in the policymaking process. The three orientations to the role of the expert were derived from the academic, the clinical, and the strategic orientations suggested by Archibald (1970). The orientations to the role of the politician were developed from the politician's overall orientation to manipulate interactions to achieve expedient political ends. The complete rational-political model is illustrated in Figure XII on page 74 of this thesis.

Phase II: Applying the Rational-Political Model to the Policymaking Process.

The description and analysis of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan using the rational-political model took the form of a case study. This approach was consistent with the literature as Hofferbert (1974:89) notes that most books and articles on the policymaking process are case studies.

Data Collection. Data were collected from three sources. One source was the notes of the researcher on observations and impressions on the process to the point when a policy was chosen. The researcher was a member of the outside evaluation team from the University of Alberta and viewed the process as a participant-observer.

A second source of data was the various documents from the School Board office, the school, and the evaluation team related to the policymaking process. Documents from the School Board office were mainly in the form of minutes from board meetings, reports, position papers and briefs, official correspondence, memoranda, and newspaper articles. Documents from the school were mainly in the form of reports, newsletters, position papers and briefs, correspondence, newspaper articles and other records. Documents from the evaluation team included the results of 537 student questionnaires and 216 parent questionnaires; the transcripts of the 76 interviews with parents, students, former students, teachers, and significant others; and memoranda, correspondence, working drafts, and the final evaluation report.

A third source of data was the thirteen respondents interviewed by the researcher. These individuals were identified as potentially good sources of information since they were actively involved in one or more stages of the policymaking process and represented either the perspective of the politician or the expert. Those interviewed were the five members of the School Board, the Superintendent, the Principal of ABJ, the Jordan Plan coordinator, the two parents on the Implementation Advisory Committee, and the members of the evaluation team. The researcher used semi-structured schedules to conduct the interviews. These interview schedules were validated by a panel of three persons who were familiar with the policymaking process under study.

Interpretation of the Data. A triangulation process was used to interpret the data from the researcher's notes and impressions, the data from the various documents, and the data from the thirteen interviews. Then the roles of the experts and the politicians and the various aspects of the policymaking process were described and analysed using the rational-political model.

Phase III: Assessing the Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model.

The usefulness of the rational-political model in describing and analysing a policymaking process was assessed against six criteria adapted from Dye (1975:38-39):

Criterion I: Usefulness of the rational-political model in ordering and simplifying political life.

Criterion II: Usefulness of the rational-political model in identifying the really significant aspects of public policymaking.

Criterion III: Usefulness of the rational-political model in achieving congruence with reality by having real empirical referents.

Criterion IV: Usefulness of the rational-political model in communicating meaningfully.

Criterion V: Usefulness of the rational-political model in directing inquiry and research.

Criterion VI: Usefulness of the rational-political model in suggesting explanations about public policymaking.

CONCLUSIONS

Three sets of conclusions were drawn from this study. The first set of conclusions resulted after viewing each of the five stages of the policymaking process on an individual basis; the second set of conclusions emerged after considering all five stages of the policymaking process together; while the third set of conclusions represented the assessment of the rational-political model against the six criteria suggested by Dye (1975).

Conclusions on Individual Stages of the Policymaking Process.

This set of conclusions was concerned with the following factors for each of the five stages in the policymaking process: the policy analysis model or models that supplied the rational criteria for the techniques and strategies employed by the evaluation team in generating rational inputs; the policy science model or models underlying the general laws explaining the interactions between and among the various political groups; and the orientations to the roles of the evaluation team and the key political groups in their rational-political interactions in the policymaking process.

The Identification of Issues Stage.

The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models seemed to guide the techniques and strategies of the evaluation team in identifying the issues surrounding the controversy over the Jordan Plan.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group model seemed to underlie the general laws explaining the political interactions that took place in this stage of the policymaking process.

The evaluation team seemed to use two orientations in its rational-political interactions: a strategic or problem-solving orientation to assist in resolving the controversy and a clinical orientation to correct deficiencies in the school system. The political motive of the School Board in its rational-political interactions was apparently to use the evaluation team to buy time until a later date when the political climate was more favorable for a decision. The evaluation team took the initiative in these rational-political interactions.

The Policy Development Stage. The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models were apparently used by the evaluation team to guide its techniques and strategies to develop policy alternatives for presentation to the School Board.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group model again seemed to govern the political interactions in this stage of the policymaking process.

The evaluation team seemed to continue using the strategic and clinical orientations in its rational-political interactions. The political motive of the Board was still apparently to use the evaluation team to buy time until the political climate became more favorable. The evaluation team again seemed to take the initiative in these rational-political interactions.

The Policy Choice Stage. The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal and incremental models were used apparently by the evaluation team to guide its techniques and strategies to recommend feasible policy alternatives to the School Board.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest groups model still seemed to explain the political interactions in this stage. However, there seemed to be evidence of elements of the institutional model emerging.

The evaluation team apparently continued to use the strategic and clinical orientations in its rational-political interactions. The political motive of the School Board in its rational-political interactions in this stage were apparently to use the evaluation team to retain its political credibility and to affirm its policymaking authority in the school system. The School Board took the initiative in these rational-political interactions.

The Policy Implementation Stage. The rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal model seemed to guide the techniques and strategies of the evaluation team in developing the set of recommendations to facilitate the implementation of the new policy.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the institutional model seemed to underlie the explanations of the political interactions which were dominated by the school during the implementation of the scheduling plan.

The evaluation team seemed to employ only the strategic orientation in recommending a problem-solving approach to the implementation of the plan. The apparent political motive of the school in its rational-political interactions was to work for the downfall of the scheduling plan. The school seemed to do this under cover of the rational inputs of the evaluation team on the new policy and its implementation strategy.

The Policy Review Stage. The evaluation team was apparently using the rational characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the optimal model when it recommended that modifications to the scheduling policy should be based on rational grounds -- on the result of a carefully planned and implemented evaluation strategy.

The political characteristics of the rational-political model adapted from the interest group model seemed to govern the political interactions of the policy termination stage of the process.

The rational-political characteristics were not applicable to this stage as policy termination was determined by the political interactions among the school, the Superintendent's office, and the School Board.

General Conclusions on the Overall Policymaking Process

Conclusions on the Role of the Adult Groups.

1. Of the total population of adults in Sherwood Park only a small number seemed to have been actively involved in the controversy over the Jordan Plan. The group opposing the Plan had five or six forceful individuals in leadership roles while a similar number represented the group supporting it. The majority of adults was not involved actively in the controversy.

2. The adult groups were mainly involved in the identification of issues stage and the policy development stage of the policymaking process. These stages involved much political activity on the part of the opposing group of adults and were very important in determining the

values, attitudes and strengths of the various groups, setting the boundaries of the conflict and assessing the feasibility of alternative plans for ABJ.

3. While there were three identifiable adult groups the controversy over the Jordan Plan centered apparently on the activities of the opposing group. This group provided the energy and the motivating force behind the controversy and was the catalyst to the policymaking process that ensued. This group went about its task of putting pressure and making demands on the School Board in a systematic and determined fashion and behaved like an experienced pressure group. On the other hand, the supporting group was not a pressure group and did not engage the opposing group in a struggle to have its values and attitudes enacted as policy. This group of adults relied apparently on a strategy of quiet support for the School Board which it perceived as representing its values, attitudes and wants. The indifferent group of adults played no part in the controversy.

4. In terms of influence (Latham, 1956:239) in the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School System it appeared that the opposing group of adults was gaining in influence at the expense of the supporting group. This is supported by the fact that in the end the School Board satisfied the demands of the opposing group for a return to the conventional five-day week schedule while setting aside the values and attitudes of the supporting group that were represented by the Jordan Plan.

Conclusions on the Role of the Superintendent's Office.

The Superintendent's office played a key "linking pin" and facilitative role throughout the policymaking process. When the School Board decided to commission an outside evaluation team to study the controversy over the Jordan Plan it was this office that made the arrangements. The Superintendent's office facilitated the collection of the data and in establishing the advisory committee to the study. In the policy choice stage the Superintendent' office advised the School Board on the financial feasibility and practicability of alternatives. It also discussed and received feedback from the school on the alternatives deemed most feasible by the School Board. This office further provided assistance to the school in implementing the new scheduling plan and advised the School Board on termination after receiving a letter from the school supporting this move. Throughout, the Superintendent's office stayed in the background and did not get actively involved in the political process. It did not try to advocate any particular scheduling plan.

Conclusions on the Role of the School.

1. Apart from being represented on the advisory committee to the evaluation team and assisting in data collection the school was not a significant political force in the identification of issues and policy development stages of the policymaking process. Its concerns for the educational aspects of the scheduling plan were important to the evaluation team in determining alternatives but the political struggle was between the opposing group of adults and the

School Board. The school respected the rules laid down by the School Board to manage the conflict and remained quietly in the background.

2. In the policy choice stage the school became more involved in the political process and wanted its voice heard in the final choice on policy. The School Board ruled the alternatives suggested by the school as politically infeasible. The school was dissatisfied apparently with the alternative chosen and there were indications that this led to a lack of commitment to the new scheduling plan. This lack of commitment proved to be a key factor in the implementation.

3. In implementing the new scheduling plan the school seemed to behave very much like a political institution asked to put in effect a policy that it felt no responsibility for and to which it had little commitment. Giving the outward appearance of implementing the new scheduling plan the school worked effectively towards its termination.

4. Apparently, the Principal of the school played a key role in the political process in laying the Jordan Plan to rest and in reverting to the traditional five-day week schedule. Probably this political role may have been behind the apparently subversive attempt at implementation and the political reasons advanced for the termination of the Plan.

Conclusions on the Role of the School Board.

1. The School Board had key responsibility for four of the five stages in the policymaking process. Responsibility for the implementation stage was given primarily to the school.

2. The political interactions initiated by the School Board

in the stages where it held key responsibility appeared to follow the interest groups model of policymaking. Faced with pressure and demands from a group of adults against an existing scheduling plan representing the values, attitudes, and wants of a group of adults supportive of the school system, the School Board set up a mechanism and rules to mediate the conflict. In the policy choice stage the School Board enacted a compromise between the demands of the opposing group and the existing Jordan Plan as its policy. Later on the School Board gave in totally to the original demands of the opposing group and accepted the conventional five-day week as the scheduling plan for ABJ. A major reason for this decision might have been the Board's perception of the growing influence of the opposing group of adults in the affairs of the school system. The School Board might have felt that its political future depended on how well it satisfies the values, attitudes, and wants of this group.

3. The manner in which the School Board held the school accountable for the implementation of the new plan and the unquestioned acceptance of the recommendation for termination seemed to suggest that this may have been a part of the Board's strategy to lay the Jordan Plan quietly to rest and to revert to the conventional five-day week schedule without losing face. Although there was no concrete evidence there was a strong impression from the data that the Principal probably played a key role in this aspect of the political process.

4. Apparently, the School Board wanted a political process that included an outside evaluation team that would successfully resolve a controversy which at first it did not know how to handle.

Through this process the Board retained its political credibility, assessed the new equilibrium of power between adult groups within the system, and quietly reestablished its policymaking position.

5. In its rational-political interactions with the evaluation team the School Board seemed to adopt an orientation to use the rational inputs as an instrument of power and political positioning to postpone decisions and win political leverage (Rein & White 1977:120). In the identification of issues and policy development stages the motive of the School Board seemed to be to buy time until the political climate was more favorable for a decision. By the policy choice stage the controversy was somewhat defused because of the passage of time and the activities of the evaluation team. The School Board was able to enact a compromise policy without losing face to the opposing group. Apparently, gauging the political situation and perceiving the influence of the adult groups to be moving towards the opposing group after one year of implementing the new plan the School Board enacted the conventional five-day week as policy in keeping with this group preferences. Thus, by skilfully using the rational inputs of the evaluation team the School Board was able to manouvre into a favorable position and retain its political power.

Conclusions on the Role of the Evaluation Team.

1. The evaluation team was apparently successful in its primary task of assisting the School Board to resolve the controversy over the Jordan Plan. In the first three stages of the policymaking process the evaluation team effectively took the pressure off the

School Board by performing a mediating role among the various political groups involved. The policymaking process engineered by the evaluation team allowed the School Board to adjust successfully to the new equilibrium of influence among adult groups in Sherwood Park. It is important to note that the success of the evaluation team cannot be judged against the implementation experience of the new scheduling plan at ABJ according to accepted views on how educational plans and programs should be implemented. Unlike the implementation of typical educational plans and programs where fidelity to procedures and key features is a major criterion of success, the implementation process engaged in could be interpreted as part of a political process designed to systematically phase out the Jordan Plan and reinstate the conventional five-day week schedule.

2. Apparently, the evaluation team was unable to accomplish its second, but less important, task of correcting the deficiencies in the school system to enable it to deal with emergent problems because of the extremely political nature of the controversy. Two deficiencies were identified in the school system -- a failure to monitor changes in the community and adjust its internal operations, and the inability to work collaboratively with adult groups. The attempts of the evaluation team to correct these deficiencies in the advisory committee and in the problem-solving structure recommended for implementing the new plan seemed to have been swept aside by the politics involved.

3. Basically the evaluation team seemed to rely on the optimal model to guide its activities in generating rational inputs through-

out the policymaking process. It employed a problem-solving approach using available rational procedures, significant knowledge inputs, and up-to-date computer equipment. As this was an extremely political controversy the evaluation team adapted its approach to suit the political situation by drawing also from the incremental model to highlight political considerations in the first three stages of the policymaking process, to identify the issues, develop alternatives and make recommendations for selecting a final policy.

4. Apparently, the evaluation team employed mainly the strategic orientation in its rational-political interactions. Evidence of this is seen in the importance the evaluation team placed on assisting the School Board in resolving the controversy over the Jordan Plan and its overall strategy in the process. The evaluation team seemed to recognize both the conflicting interests as well as the common ones in its relationship with the school system and entered into a relationship of give-and-take and mutual influence. Further, the evaluation team allowed the boundaries of the controversy rather than the boundaries of its discipline to dictate its overall strategy and used a multidisciplinary approach to identify issues and develop solutions and recommendations.

The evaluation team also seemed to use the clinical orientation to some degree. However, because of the lack of trust on the part of the most important adult group, the opposing group, and the extreme political nature of the controversy this orientation did not appear to have any significant effect on the outcomes of the policymaking process.

5. Overall, the role of the evaluation team in the policymaking process appeared to be consistent with some of the more recent literature on ways the expert can more effectively impact policymaking. For example, Worth (1977:9) suggests that the policy researcher should make increased use of the political model and have the ability to bargain, compromise, and build consensus without losing sight of his prime motive which is to aid the cause of rationality. The evaluation team realized that it was dealing with a political controversy and apparently did not behave as a pure agent of rationality but instead established a mechanism in the form of an advisory committee to manage the political process and cultivate a climate for the acceptance of a reasonable compromise as policy. However, while engaged actively in the political process the evaluation team employed available rational procedures in its strategy and based its development of alternatives and recommendations on sound educational knowledge and practice. Worth (1977:10) further notes that for the policy researcher to be effective he has to expand his view of the role of research to include problem identification, analysis of possible alternatives, and evaluation of outcomes. The evaluation team seemed to have followed this expanded view of the policy researcher's role because it identified the issues underlying the Jordan Plan controversy, developed and rated a number of alternatives, and evaluated the potential outcomes of the various alternatives including two preferred ones.

Conclusions on the Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model

One conclusion was drawn for each of the six criteria used to assess the usefulness of the rational-political model.

Criterion I: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Ordering and Simplifying Political Life.

Conclusion: It is concluded that the rational-political model has demonstrated its ability to order and simplify the description and analysis of the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling plan at ABJ. In comparison with the existing general policymaking models identified in the literature, it is also concluded that the rational-political model seems to have the best potential to order and simplify the description and analysis of any policymaking process similar to the one in this case study.

Criterion II: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Identifying the Really Significant Aspects of Public Policymaking.

Conclusion: It is concluded that the rational-political model has identified the significant aspects of the policymaking process involved in modifying the scheduling policy at ABJ. Further, in comparison with the other two general policymaking models identified in the literature reviewed, it is also concluded that the rational-political model seems to have the best potential to identify the significant aspects in a policymaking process that actively involves experts and politicians.

Criterion III: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Achieving Congruence with Reality by Having Real Empirical Referents.

Conclusion: It is concluded that the rational-political model was to a large extent congruent to the reality of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. In comparison with the other models reviewed in the literature it is further concluded that the rational-political model shows the greatest degree of congruence with the reality of a policymaking process that actively involved experts and politicians.

Criterion IV: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Communicating Meaningfully.

Conclusion: It is concluded that the rational-political model showed the ability to communicate meaningfully the various aspects of the policymaking process in this case study. In comparison with the models reviewed it is also concluded that the rational-political model is better able to communicate meaningfully about a policymaking process that is viewed comprehensively.

Criterion V: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Directing Inquiry and Research.

Conclusion: It is concluded that the rational-political model demonstrated the ability to direct a comprehensive description and analysis of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. In comparison with the other policymaking models reviewed it is further concluded that the rational-political model appears better equipped to direct a comprehensive description and analysis of a policymaking process that actively involves experts and politicians.

Criterion VI: Usefulness of the Rational-Political Model in Suggesting Explanations about Public Policymaking.

Conclusion: It is concluded that the rational-political model showed the ability to suggest explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan. While it was not designed to generate generalizable explanations for the causes of public policymaking from this case study the rational-political model did elicit a number of heuristic hypotheses. In comparison with the other policymaking models reviewed it is further concluded that the rational-political model seemed better able to suggest explanations for the causes of the policymaking process involved in modifying the Jordan Plan and to generate some heuristic hypotheses for public policymaking.

IMPLICATIONS

Implications for Theory.

There are three major implications drawn from this study for theorizing about the policymaking process:

1. This study lays the groundwork for the development of comprehensive models that include the rational and political perspectives of the type advocated by such writers as Downey (1977) and Ingram (1978). The conclusions drawn after assessing the use-

fulness of the rational-political model suggest that it was better equipped to describe and analyse a policymaking process that actively involved experts and politicians than are the existing models and thus warrants further development. A key area of development of any comprehensive model including the rational and political perspectives is a rational-political component to probe the interface between the experts and the politicians. Downey's (1977) suggestion that the political perspective be superimposed on the rational perspective was one view of how the rational and political aspects of the policymaking process could work together. However, the experience from this study supports Wright's (1977) criticism that such a simple superimposition is impractical. All of this points to the need for further development and refinement of the comprehensive rational-political model.

2. This study contributes to theory by introducing the concept of "a rational-political component" in the policymaking process and by pointing out the general direction from which concepts and new hypotheses can come by proposing ten heuristic hypotheses. The rational-political component would seem to be the key area of investigation for any researcher studying the active involvement of experts and politicians in the policymaking process. As this was largely an exploratory study the ten heuristic hypotheses were of necessity general and tentative and still require much delimitation and modification.

3. This study could set the stage for other studies using the same model, or modified versions of the rational-political model,

to describe and analyse policymaking processes actively involving experts and politicians. This line of inquiry could prove fruitful for the development of theory on the policymaking process for two main reasons. First, it would encourage further exploration of the "black box" in the policymaking process. The description and eventual explanation of these interactions could form the basis of an important set of theories about the policymaking process. Second, the use of a comprehensive model similar to the rational-political model would give the researcher the freedom to use the best concepts from the available models to report what he sees, and potentially more important, identify and label any new aspects of the policymaking process that emerge. In this way established theories on the policymaking process might be reaffirmed or modified and new concepts and theories could be developed.

Implications for Practice.

The findings of this study have several implications for participants in the policymaking process and for educational practitioners.

Implications for the Expert. The major implication from this study for the expert who intends to be actively involved in the policymaking process is that he should employ the strategic orientation to his role. This mode of interactions with other participants seems to have the greatest likelihood of injecting rationality into the process. It also accomodates the expert best in the political context in which he has to work and allows for give-and-take and mutual influence.

To further strenghten rationality in the policymaking process the expert could incorporate two useful strategies suggested by Ingram (1977:2-4) in the strategic approach. The first strategy is to find out initially the real purposes and motives of those commissioning the study. As these purposes and motives could be largely political the expert can ascertain the extent to which his rational inputs are likely to affect the policy. If the expert feels that his involvement is a mere political ploy, for example, serving as a delaying tactic or a legitimating activity for a decision already made and he does not want to be used in this way, he could withdraw his services. It would not aid the cause of rationality for the expert to continue his involvement in the process and express frustration in the end claiming that he did not know that his services would have been used for purely political reasons. The second strategy involves the establishment of an advisory committee representing all significant groups to the study. This committee could be a major vehicle to inject rationality into the policymaking process. It could be used as a problem-solving forum where the expert could cultivate the climate for rational decision-making. As the politician is likely to use the expert as a mechanism to achieve his political ends the expert could employ the advisory committee in similar manner to further the cause of rationality in the policymaking process.

Implications for School Boards. The main implication of this study for school boards is that the involvement of an outside team of experts is an effective means of managing group conflict in the policymaking process. Apart from supplying rational inputs to the process the outside team of experts can assist in resolving many political dilemmas resulting from interest group pressure by buying the time the school boards need to manouvre.

Implications for Interest Groups. The implication of this study for interest groups wishing to have their educational values and preferences enacted as policy is that individuals could organize themselves into groups and apply pressure on the School Board. A pressure group using a carefully sustained strategy of making complaints and presenting its case to the educational authorities and cultivating public opinion on a policy issue is likely to make the School Board respond to its demands. A few dedicated individuals banded together as a group and willing to invest time and energy to pressure the School Board could have a significant influence on educational policies of a system.

Implications for Educational Practitioners. This study has two implications for educational practitioners.

One implication deals with the importance of a mechanism to foster good communication between the school and the community. It seems that in order for an innovative school to function effectively it must have a means of monitoring the wishes of its clientele in the community. Innovations do not usually gain unanimous support from everyone and are likely to breed discontent and opposition. Close monitoring is essential to adjust the internal operations of the school from time to time to reflect major shifts of educational values and preferences in the community. If this is not done the school could become embroiled in political battles of the type that occurred in Sherwood Park over the Jordan Plan.

The second implication focuses on the adoption and implementation of innovations in schools. A major insight of this study is that an innovation cannot stand on its educational merits alone; it has to be compatible with the context in which it operates. The Jordan Plan and Five Day Week II schedules were educationally superior to the conventional five-day week on several counts but they were not compatible with the educational values and preferences of a large minority of adults in the school district and had to be terminated. Practitioners contemplating the introduction of innovations must weigh educational merits against the potential pressure and stress from various sources that the implementors and the school may have to undergo and decide whether the innovations are worth the trouble. Further, situational factors may change after implementation and cause an innovation that had reasonable acceptance at first to become a source of problems. Thus, careful initial examination and periodical reviews are imperative for the successful use of innovations in schools.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following recommendations for further research are made as a result of this study:

1. A content analysis of selected case studies on policymaking processes actively involving experts and politicians is needed to develop profiles of the current roles of experts and politicians.

Such a study could contribute to the development of concepts and hypotheses to explain the interactions of experts and politicians in the policymaking process.

2. A parallel study to the above content analysis is needed to survey recognized experts who have a history of involvement in policymaking and politicians who usually involve experts in policymaking on what the roles of experts and politicians ought to be. The delphi technique would seem to be an appropriate method to gain consensus in such a study. Again the aim of this study would be primarily to develop concepts and hypotheses to explain the interactions of experts and politicians in the process.

3. Further research using the rational-political model employed in this study should be undertaken with regard to other policymaking processes actively involving experts and politicians. Conceptual frameworks and methodologies related to the rational-political model may also prove fruitful in advancing knowledge about the policymaking process as well as further the development of comprehensive models of the type suggested by Downey (1977) and Ingram (1978).

4. Ten heuristic hypotheses were proposed while assessing the usefulness of the rational-political model to suggest explanations about the policymaking process. These heuristic hypotheses could be formed into research questions and be tested against contemporary policymaking processes.

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

MEMBERS OF THE SCHOOL BOARD, THE SUPERINTENDENT, THE PRINCIPAL AND THE JORDAN PLAN COORDINATOR

1. Why was the outside evaluation team commissioned by the School Board?

2. How many adult groups were involved in the controversy over the Jordan Plan?
   - Were the groups well organized?
   - How strong were these groups and what action did they take?

3. What part did the School Board/the Superintendent's office/the school/the evaluation team play in identifying the issues surrounding the Jordan Plan?

4. What part did the School Board/the Superintendent's office/the school/the evaluation team play in developing alternative scheduling policies?

5. How much input did the Superintendent's office/the school/the evaluation team have in choosing the new policy?

6. What criteria were used to choose the new scheduling policy?
   - Was the concept of optional time accepted?
   - Was the role of teacher-consultant accepted?
   - Was the idea of student-contracts accepted?

7. Was the evaluation team's recommendation to establish a development team consisting of administrators, teachers, parents, and students to work out details of the new policy for full implementation in September of 1979 adopted?
   - Describe your involvement on this development team.

8. Was the evaluation team's recommendation to work out ways to periodically evaluate the new scheduling plan adopted?
   - What were the results of the evaluation efforts?

9. Was the evaluation team's recommendation to set up an interim school/community relations committee to work out details for a permanent school/community committee to monitor the new plan adopted?
   - How well did this committee work?

10. How often was the School Board informed of the way the new scheduling plan was working?
    - Was the School Board satisfied with the results?

11. Are there other comments you would like to make on the implementation of the new scheduling plan?

12. Why was a decision taken to revert to the five-day week schedule?
    - What input did the Superintendent's office/the school have in this decision?

13. Were you satisfied with the evaluation report?
    - Did the evaluation team give good advice?
    - Were you dissatisfied with anything in the report?
    - Did the evaluation team involve the School Board/the Superintendent's office/the school in a satisfactory manner?

14. Were you satisfied with the way the School Board handled the controversy surrounding the Jordan Plan?
    - Would you have liked anything done differently?

15. Do you think the Schol Board acted democratically?

16. Are there any other comments you would like to make?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

PARENTS ON ADVISORY COMMITTEE TO IMPLEMENTATION

1. When were you appointed to the development team for the new scheduling plan at ABJ?
2. How frequently did this development team meet?
3. From your viewpoint what was the development team trying to do?
4. What details did the development team work out on:
    (a) activities for optional time blocks?
    (b) the teacher-consultant role?
    (c) student contracts?
    (d) evaluation?
5. Was a school/community relations committee established?
    - How well did this committee function?
6. In your judgement how well was the new scheduling plan working?
7. Who made the decision to terminate the new scheduling plan?
    - How did you feel about this decision?
8. Are there any other comments you would like to make?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

MEMBERS OF THE EVALUATION TEAM

1. Why was the Evaluation Team really commissioned to evaluate the Jordan Plan?

2. What was the role of the interest groups in the policymaking process during the time the Evaluation Team was involved?

3. What was the role of the School Board in the policymaking process during the time the Evaluation Team was involved?

4. What was the role of the superintendent's office in the policymaking process during the time the Evaluation team was involved?

5. What was the role of the school (asministrators and teachers) in the policymaking process during the time the Evaluation Team was involved?

6. How did the Evaluation Team attempt to link the evaluation to the policymaking process of the School Board?
   - How was information provided?
   - At what stages was the School Board involved?
   - Was the process essentially a problem solving one?

7. What was the rationale for an advisory committee during the evaluation?
   - Did the advisory committee fulfill its role as expected?

8. Were there any constraints that limited the work of the Evaluation Team?

9. What strategies were adopted by the Evaluation Team to ensure implementation of the new policy?

10. Why did the Evaluation Team recommend that the new policy be implemented on a trial basis for one year?

11. How would you rate the approach taken by the School Board on the Jordan Plan issue?

12. How much political activity did the Evaluation Team engage in?

13. What is your assessment of the relative influence of politics

and rationality in the policymaking process during the time the Evaluation Team was involved?

14. Are there any other insights or comments you would like to offer?

APPENDIX B

SOURCES OF DATA

Documentary Materials from Archbishop Jordan High School, Sherwood Park.

A. Letters

Letter from B. Whalley, English Department Coordinator, to Mr. & Mrs. R. Donahue on the misbehavior of their son, Kevin, November 1, 1977.

Letter from G. Hanson, Assistant Principal, to Mr. & Mrs. R. Donahue on the suspension of their son, Kevin, November 25, 1977.

Letter from Rita & Allen Harrington, Parents, to Editor, Sherwood Park News -- "Plan evaluation called 'a waste'," January 18, 1978.

Letter from J. A. Griffin, Parent, to Editor, Edmonton Journal -- reply to article "School's 4-day week reviewed," February 14, 1978.

Letter from T. Shultz, Parent, to Editor, Edmonton Journal -- "Sign of progression," February 22, 1978.

Letter from R. Donahue, Parent, to M. Lynch, Chairman Board of Trustees, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District, on reasons for his son's suspension, February 23, 1978.

Letter from L.G. Nelson, Parent, to Editor, Edmonton Journal -- "4-day week erodes our system," February 23, 1978.

Letter from M. Lynch, Chairman, Board of Trustees, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District, in reply to R. Donahue, Parent, March 7, 1978.

Letter from G. Rozycki, Parent, to Editor, Sherwood Park News -- "Resident against Jordan Plan," March 22, 1978.

Letter from J. Bantle, President, Archbishop Jordan High School Students' Union, to Parents, October 11, 1978.

Letter from R. Eberley, Parent, to G. Karpinka, Principal, on Student Contract Forms, October 28, 1978.

Letter from G. Karpinka, Principal, to R. Eberley, Parent on Student Contract Forms, November 9, 1978.

Letter fom G. Karpinka, Principal, to F.X. Bishoff, Superintendent, requesting termination of the Jordan Plan, May 4, 1979.

B. Newspaper Articles

"Jordan Plan under fire," Sherwood Park News, December 21, 1977.

"Under Fire," Sherwood Park News, January 4, 1978.

" 'Another attack on Canadian work ethic' says angry separate school parent group," Saint John's Edmonton Report, January 23, 1978.

"School's 4-day week reviewed," Edmonton Journal, January 25, 1978.

"Jordan Plan ... The senior high school's special day," Sherwood Park News, November 23, 1978.

C. Minutes

Minutes of Jordan Plan Development Team, June 27, 1978.

Minutes of Jordan Plan Development Team, July 10, 1978.

Minutes of Jordan Plan Development Team, August 14, 1978.

Minutes of Jordan Plan Development Team, November 1, 1978.

Minutes of Jordan Plan Development Team, November 8, 1978.

Minutes of Jordan Plan Development Team, February 20, 1979.

D. Newsletters and Bulletins

Draft of Jordan Plan Newsletter, October, 1978.

Jordan Plan Newsletter, October 13, 1978.

Jordan Plan ewsletter, November, 1978.

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Jordan Plan Newsletter, February 26, 1979.

E. Memoranda and Reports

Jordan Plan Financial Statement 1977/1978, November, 1978.

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Report on Teacher-Consultant Role, November 12, 1978.

Results of Jordan Plan Survey, February, 1979.

Evaluation Report: Jordan Plan 1978/1979, prepared by J. Retallack, Jordan Plan Coordinator, for Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District, March 5, 1979.

F. Miscellaneous Materials

Jordan Plan Student Contract Form, November, 1978.

Booklet on Jordan Plan Activities, Fall, 1978.

Timetable for Archbishop Jordan High School, February, 1978.

Documentary Materials from The Superintendent's Office, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District.

A. Documents and Papers

F. X. Bishoff, "The Jordan Plan," Fall, 1973.

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The Edmonton Regional Office, Alberta Department of Education, "Assessment of the Archbishop Jordan High School (Jordan Plan)," April, 1974.

Parent Group Presentation: Summary Report on Jordan Plan -- A Position Paper to Reinstate 5-day Academic Week. December, 1977.

B. Minutes.

Minutes of the Regular Board Meeting held on Monday, June 12, 1978.

Minutes of the Regular Board Meeting held on Monday, June 11, 1979.

C. Miscellaneous Materials

Re-election Platform Phamplet for M. A. Lynch for Catholic School Trustee, October 17, 1977.

Documentary Materials from the Evaluation Team

A. Key Documents

J. Bergen, E. Ingram, and G. McIntosh, January, 1978. Proposal to Conduct Evaluation of the Jordan Plan Submitted to the Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District #105.

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Ingram, E., J. Bergen, G. McIntosh & L. Kunjbehari, The Jordan Plan -- Review and Assessment of Alternatives, May, 1978.

B. Memoranda and Letters

Letter from R. Donahue, Parent, to evaluation team on reasons for his son's expulsion from ABJ, January 23, 1978.

Memorandum from ABJ to evaluation team on perceived shortcomings of proposed questionnaires survey, February 17, 1978.

Memorandum from Dr. J. Bergen to other members of the evaluation team on Jordan Plan meeting February 18, 1978.

Memorandum from W.A. Griffin, Parent, to Dr. E. Ingram of the evaluation team, commenting on the proposal for the Jordan Plan evaluation. February 21, 1978.

Memorandum from Mrs. Griffin, Parent and member of the advisory committee to the Jordan Plan evaluation, to the evaluation team submitting names of possible interviewees. February 22, 1978.

Memorandum from B. Whalley, ABJ teacher and member of the advisory committee to the Jordan Plan evaluation, to the evaluation team commenting on the proposed student -parent survey. February, 1978.

Memorandum from A. Hermary, School Trustee and member of the advisory committee to the Jordan Plan evaluation, to the evaluation team submitting names of possible interviewees. February, 1978.

C. Working Papers and Drafts

Drafts of the questionnaires for parents, students, and former students in the survey for the Jordan Plan evaluation. February, 1978.

Drafts of interview schedules for parents, students, former students, teachers, and special interviewees for the Jordan Plan evaluation. February, 1978.

Paper -- A framework for application of the data from the Jordan Plan Study. February, 1978.

Paper -- Selection of Interviewees. February, 1978.

Drafts of reviews of the relevant literature on school scheduling and related issues. February - April, 1978.

Transcripts of the 76 interviews the evaluation team conducted with parents, students, former students, teachers, and special interviewees. March - April, 1978.

Computer analysis and interpretation of data from the questionnaire survey in the Jordan Plan Study. March, 1978.

Paper -- A framework for generating and selecting from among alternative scheduling plans. March, 1978.

Draft of the assessment of the Jordan Plan against the stated objectives. April, 1978.

Draft of the issues surrounding the Jordan Plan Controversy. April, 1978.

Paper -- The six issues arising from the Jordan Plan Study. April, 1978.

Paper -- The components of a scheduling plan. April, 1978.

D. Notes of Discussions

Notes on the Jordan Plan Evaluation Team meeting held on January 31, 1978.

Notes on the meeting of the advisory committee to the Jordan Plan evaluation held on February 15, 1978.

Notes on the meeting of the advisory committee to the Jordan Plan Evaluation held on April 12, 1978.

Notes on the meeting of the advisory committee to the Jordan Plan evaluation held on April 26, 1978.

Notes on the Jordan Plan Evaluation Team meeting held on May 4, 1978.

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS

INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS

Bergen, Dr. J.	Member of the Jordan Plan Evaluation Team
Bishoff, F.	Superintendent, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District No. 105
Boisvert, R.	Member of the School Board, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District No. 105
Collinson, A.	Parent member on the Development Committee to the Implementation of the new scheduling policy at Archbishop Jordan High School
Cowan, R.	Member of the School Board, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District No. 105
Hermary, A.	Member of the School Board, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District No. 105
Ingram, Dr. E.	Coordinator of the Jordan Plan Evaluation Team.
Karpinka, G.	Principal, Archbishop Jordan High School
Lynch, M.	Chairman of the School Board, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District No. 105
McIntosh, Dr. G.	Member of the Jordan Plan Evaluation Team
Paccagnan, A.	Parent member on the Development Committee to the Implementation of the new scheduling policy at Archbishop Jordan High School
Rettallack, J.	Coordinator of the Jordan Plan and Teacher at Archbishop Jordan High School
Souliere, I.	Member of the School Board, Sherwood Park Catholic Separate School District No. 105